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# RUSSIAN GRAMMAR

BY

NEVILL FORBES, M.A., Ph.D.

READER IN RUSSIAN AND THE OTHER SLAVONIC
LANGUAGES IN THE UNIVERSITY OF OXFORD

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#### PREFACE

The accompanying volume is a practical rather than a scientific grammar. It is intended for the use of those students who are working under a teacher able to explain the difficulties of the language to them, and also for the use of those who are working at the language by themselves with the object of being able to read it; but it does not profess to be an adequate means of teaching any one working alone how to speak Russian.

As it is an elementary book, philological references and comparisons and etymological explanations have been avoided, in order not to discourage the beginner.

The most important points of the syntax that could be included in a book of this size have been mentioned, not in a part by themselves, but incorporated in the morphology.

I wish to thank Dr. Henry Bradley and Mr. Daniel Jones for the help which they have kindly given me with regard to one or two points of detail, particularly in those parts dealing with pronunciation. Syntactical examples have been gathered from the works of Púshkin, Gógol, Goncharóv, L. Tolstói, Dostoyévski, and Gárshin.

NEVILL FORBES.

OXFORD, June, 1914.

#### PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION

Besides being thoroughly revised, the grammar has been enlarged by several sections of a practical character; also an index of Russian words and phrases and an English subjectindex have been added, which, it is thought, will be found useful.

N. F.

OXFORD, July, 1916.

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#### INTRODUCTION

## § 1. The Russians and the Russian Language.

Russian, like most of the other languages of Europe, belongs to the great Indo-European family of languages. Within this family it is one of the group of Slavonic languages, as German is one of the Germanic group of languages. The Slavonic group of languages includes Polish, Bohemian (or Czech), Slovak (in Northern Hungary), and Lusatian-Wendish (still spoken in the valley of the Spree), which form its Western, Slovene, Serbo-Croatian and Bulgarian, which form its Southern, and Russian, comprising Great, Little, and White Russian, which forms its Eastern and largest branch. The phonetics of the Slavonic languages have become differentiated from those of other European languages in such a way that their affinity with these latter is not always directly apparent. But one has only to took at such primitive words as сестра́ (sestrá), брать (brat), сынь (syn), дочь (doch'), бровь (brov'), борода (boroda), молоко (moloko), гусь (gus'), нска-(iska-) to see their close connexion with our sister, brother, son, daughter, brow, beard, milk, goose, ask. Other words, such as math (mat'), домъ (dom), въра (vera), око (oko), видъ (vide-), immediately recall cognate words in Greek and Latin. Many, like вдова́ (vdová). widow, have equivalents closely similar in most of the Indo-European languages. The population of the Russian Empire numbers about 175,000,000, and of these fully two-thirds, about 117,000,000, are Russians. Of these again about two-thirds, nearly 80,000,000, are Russians properly so called, or Great Russians, who occupy the whole of Northern, Central (as far west as Smolensk), Eastern and South-Eastern Russia, and Siberia; it is their language which is the vastly predominating one, which is also the official and the literary language, and is generally called Russian, though to distinguish it from Little and White Russian it is

termed Great Russian. Little Russian, a dialect of Russian so strongly differentiated as almost to justify its being called a separate language, is spoken by about thirty million people in Southern and South-Western Russia and in Eastern Galicia, where it is called Ruthenian. The White Russian dialect is spoken by about eight millions in Western Russia, the centre of which may be regarded as Mogilev (Morniëra); it is not so different from Great Russian as is Little Russian.

#### § 2. The Alphabet.

The alphabet used by the Russians and by the other Slavs of the orthodox confession. Serbians and Bulgarians, for the rendering of the sounds of their language is that known as the Cyrillic (кириллица). It is so called because its composition is attributed to St. Cyril (826-869), a Greek of Salonika, whose secular name was Constantine, who with his brother Methodius was commissioned by the Emperor Michael II to effect the conversion of Moravia, the Prince of Moravia having expressed a wish to see Christianity introduced into his country. Confronted with the problem how to communicate the Truth to the savages of Pannonia, he with great ingenuity elaborated an alphabet which with scientific accuracy represented the sounds of the Slavonic vernacular, so different from those of Greek. His work was facilitated by his knowledge of the Slavonic dialects current at that time in Macedonia, indeed it was on this account that he had been chosen to accomplish the task. The Slavonic language, for the transcription of whose sounds he composed his alphabet, is now generally considered to have been Old Bulgarian, which was, however, quite possibly intelligible to the inhabitants of Moravia at a time when the several Slavonic languages were without doubt very far from being so divergent from one another as they are to-day. Whether it was of the alphabet now called Cyrillic that St. Cyril was the author, or of the cognate alphabet called Glagolitic, still used in remote parts of Dalmatia, is uncertain, but it is probable that of the two, the latter, the Glagolitic, which has been proved to be older than the Cyrillic and was founded on the Greek minuscule script of the ninth century, was that actually compiled by him, and was later owing to the complexity of its character almost everywhere supplanted by the alphabet now known as the Cyrillic, which, founded on the Greek majuscule

script, was much clearer than the Glagolitic. The Cyrillic is the only alphabet the use of which the Russians have ever known, and it is not unnatural that its origin should have been attributed to the man who was the first to put down any Slavonic dialect in black on white, and has ever since been regarded as the fountain of their enlightenment by all Slavs of the Eastern faith. The art of writing was introduced into Russia simultaneously with Christianity in the tenth century, and the Cyrillic alphabet was imposed upon the country with as much vigour as the new religion, but with far less regard for local conditions. The alphabet had been an admirable instrument for rendering Old Bulgarian, but the phonology of that language was then already very different from that of Russian. Old Bulgarian (called in Russian 'Church-Slavonic'), however, immediately established itself as the language of the church, a position it still holds with quite inconsiderable modifications to-day; it became the only approved medium of expression for all literary work, and, though it could not remain altogether free from the influences of the vernacular Russian, especially in works of a secular character, yet the alphabet itself took such firm root, that no attempts to alter it have been successful. Of the influence of Old Bulgarian, or Church-Slavonic, on the grammatical forms and vocabulary of Russian, mention will be made later. Here it is only necessary to remind the student that the discrepancies between Russian as it is written and Russian as it is spoken, the illogicalness of Russian orthography, which owes its quaint charm to a sense of historical tradition and recalls that of our own language, and consequently much of the difficulty experienced in mastering Russian, are all due to the fact that the Cyrillic alphabet was not originally made for that language. It is necessary in every language to submit to certain conventions, and it is doubtful whether those which regulate the orthography of the Western Slavonic languages, e.g. Polish and Czech, which use a distorted Latin alphabet, are more rational and less formidable than those which govern Russian. Besides Sanskrit, the only language which has a really scientific alphabet, in which every letter corresponds exactly and without help of accents to the sound it is intended to represent, is Serbian, where there was no historical tradition strong enough to obstruct reform. The Cyrillic alphabet is based on that

of the Greek majuscule script but contains important additional signs, the origin of which is not known, representing sounds which never existed in Greek. Its directly Greek origin is apparent in the quite unnecessary incorporation in it of  $\hbar\tau a$  (I),  $l\hat{a}\tau a$  (i), and  $\delta \psi \iota \lambda \delta \nu$  (v), which all had exactly the same value in Greek as it was spoken in the ninth century, viz. i, and in the necessity of inventing a separate sign for b (B 6), because the Greek  $\beta$  was in the ninth century only pronounced as v, except after m, e.g.  $\lambda a\mu$ - $\beta \acute{a}\nu \omega$ , while in Old Bulgarian b never followed on a nasal consonant. The Cyrillic characters, which were originally very plain, but had by the eighteenth century assumed somewhat complicated and unwieldy shapes, were by Peter the Great simplified for the requirements of modern printing and at the present time have the following appearance:

PRIN	TED	ITALIC	TRANSLITERATED	NAME
A	a	Au	a	$\mathbf{a}$
Б	б	Б б	ъ	бе
В	В	$B$ $\epsilon$	v	Be a
$\Gamma$	r	$\Gamma$ $\imath$	$oldsymbol{g}$	re
Д	д	Д∂	d	де
E	е	E - e	e 1	е
Ж	<b>Ж</b>	Ж ж	ะไน	же
- 3	3	З з	z	30
И	и	$u_{\lambda}$		L H
1	i	I i	$i^2$	i съ то́чкой (= i with a dot)
Й	й 3	й й		й сь кра́ткой (= i with a short quantity)
к	ĸ	KK	k	ка
Л	Л	$\mathcal{I}$ $\mathcal{I}$	Z	эль

<sup>1</sup> After vowels, also after a and a, both e and a are transliterated

3 These four letters, й ъ ы ь, are never initial.

 $<sup>^{2}</sup>$  The very common adjectival terminations -ый and -ій are transliterated by the one letter y and i respectively.

	NTED		LIC	TRANSLITERATED	NAME
M	M	M	м	m	эмъ
H	н	H	H	n	энъ
0	0	0	0	o	0 ,
П	п	II	n	$m{p}$	пе
P	p	$\boldsymbol{P}$	p	r	эръ
$\mathbf{C}$	C	$\boldsymbol{\mathit{C}}$	c	s	эсъ
$\mathbf{T}$	T	T	m	t	TO
$\mathbf{y}$	У	$\boldsymbol{\mathcal{Y}}$	$\boldsymbol{y}$	u	y
Φ	ф	₫	gb	f	ъфе
$\mathbf{X}$	<b>X</b>	$\boldsymbol{X}$	$\boldsymbol{x}$	$kh^{1}$	xa
ц	ц	Ц	4	ts	це
Ч	P	Ч	ų	ch	че
Ш	m	Ш	ш	sh	ща
Щ	щ	Щ	ш,	shch	ща
Ъ	ъ2	3	ъ	[omitted in trans- literation, cf. § 9]	еръ <b>4</b>
ы	ы2	Ы	37	y	еры́
ь	$\mathbf{b_2}$	Ъ	8	[usually omitted	ерь5
				in transliteration,	срв
ъ	Ť.	_		cf. § 14]	
_	_	\$	76	$e^3$	ать
9	9	Э	Э	e	э оборотное
ю	<b>TO</b>	70			(= turned round)
R	ю	Ю	70	yu	Ю
	A	A	я	<b>y</b> a	8
0	Ө	θ	θ	f	еита
V	r	V	v	i .	ижица

The place of English x is taken in Russian by kc or ks.

Initial x is transliterated h.
 See note 3 on p. 12.
 See note 1 on p. 12.
 Also called твёрдый знакъ = hard sign.
 Also called микий знакъ = soft sign.

The Written Alphabet C cAa 50 III mm of Yy FF X x x Bel Trr 2 0 g E e ly ug 4 ur H se se sp 3 3 3 ll in in Uuun My my Jiin - 66 KKK Nix - 60 ゆあゅう Muum HHHHH 9 3 00 10 to 10 Ronn IInn (A) 0 Phrp

How letters are addressed in Russian
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#### RUSSIAN TRANSCRIPTION

Москва

Арба́тъ д. (= домъ) 30 кв. (= кварти́ра) 15 Е.В.Б. (Его́ Высокоблагоро́дію) Никола́ю Миха́йловичу Сергь́еву.

Орловская губ. (= губернія)
г. (= городз) Мценскъ
с. (= село́) Благода́тное
Его́ Превосхода́тельству
Андре́ю Петровичу Стою́нину
для переда́чи Е.В.Б.
Бора́су Па́вловичу Смирно́вскому.

Петроградъ
Гла́вная По́чта, до востре́бованія
Ей Сі́мтельству Княчі́нть
А́ннть Ильи́ничнть Біъломо́рской.

#### ENGLISH TRANSLATION

Moscow

Arbát (House) No. 30 (Flat) No. 15 (genitive) His (dative) Highwellbornness (dative) Nicholas Mikháilovich Sergéyev.

Government (= Province) of Orél (Орёль) town Mtsensk

village Blagodátnoye
(genitive) His (dative) Excellency
(dative) Andrew Petróvich Stoyúnin
for handing-over<sup>1</sup> to His Highwellbornness
(dative) Boris Pávlovich Smirnóvski.

Petrograd
General Post Office, till called for (= Poste Restante)
(genitive) Her (dative) Serenity Princess
(dative) Anne Ilínichna (cf. p. 81) Belomórskaya.

1 = B. P. Smirnóvski, c/o A. P. Stoyúnin.

# A letter in Russian

Mkoroybaskalubin Toenoduwo C.! Влагодарю Васт за Ваше письмо omt / 20 rueda c. u., komopoe er nolyruse cerodus. I orens part, imo Bou Douxaile Transmoryens de Mochber, u наджнось скоро съ Вани познакоsumber. It Sydy Back sidams y cerso zabropa bo 11 r. ympa; если же это Вамя недбовно, то I nocmapasocs repiume er Baurs br deris u br race, nomopour Bor Сами назначите. Вт проэтном оживани скоро ст Banca nobudambed, u mellade Bank beero scopomaro, ocmaroch npedannoù Bant

1718

#### RUSSIAN TRANSCRIPTION

Многоуважаемый Господинь С.!

Елагодарю Вась за Ваше письмо от 1го (= перваго) числа с. м. (= сего мюсяци), которое я получиль сегодня. Я очень радь, что Вы добъхали благополучно до Москвы, и надблось скоро съ Вами познакомиться. Я буду Вась оксдать у себя завтра въ 11 ч. (= часовъ) утра; если оксе это Вамъ неудобно, то я постаранось прийти къ Вамъ въ день и въ часъ, которые Вы сами назначите. Въ пріятномъ ожидании скоро съ Вами повидаться, и окселая Вамъ всего хорошаго, остаюсь

преданный Вамъ

A. E.

#### ENGLISH TRANSLATION

MUCH-RESPECTED MR. S.,

Thank you for your letter of the 1st inst. (lit. date of this month), which I received to-day. I am very glad that you have reached Moscow safely, and hope soon to make your acquaintance. I shall expect you at my house to-morrow at 11 a.m.; but if this is inconvenient for you, then I will try and come to (see) you on a day and at an hour which you shall yourself fix. In the pleasant expectation of soon meeting you, and wishing you every good, I remain.

devoted to you,

å. B.

(N. B.—People with whom one is already acquainted are always addressed by the Christian name and the patronymic. Dear Sir (Милостивый Государь — Merciful Sovereign) is used in very formal or business letters, usually with the name added. Dear (дорогой, милый) is only used to relations or intimate friends; a more formal ending is глубокоуважающій Васъ, cf. p. 201. An intermediate opening is мобезный — amiable.)

#### PRONUNCIATION

#### § 3. The Vowels.

There are ten vowels in Russian, five hard and, corresponding to these, five soft or palatalized, and two so-called mute vowels, one hard and one soft. A soft or palatalized vowel means a hard vowel preceded by the sound of the English letter y in such a way as to make a monophthong; e.g. the sound contained in the English words you or yew is really a palatalized u. This process of turning a hard into a soft vowel is called palatalization and plays a very important part in Russian. Whenever a soft or palatal vowel is preceded immediately by a consonant, the latter is affected by the y-sound of the palatal vowel and coalesces with it, the result being a softened or palatalized consonant. A consonant followed by a palatal vowel is pronounced differently from one followed by a hard vowel, though the effect of the palatal vowel is much greater on some consonants than on others, while the effect of certain palatal vowels is greater than that of others.

Further, a palatal vowel sometimes affects the pronunciation of a hard vowel in the preceding syllable, though here again certain palatal vowels particularly affect certain hard vowels.

The pronunciation of the vowels is further influenced by the position of the accent. The Russian is a stress accent and is mobile, i.e. it can fall on any syllable. There are certain rules for the placing of the accent, but as they are positively riddled with exceptions, it is far more difficult to learn them from a book than by ear or by reading accented texts; they have therefore been omitted in this grammar, the accent itself, however, of course being marked in the case of each word mentioned.

#### § 4. Hard Vowels.

The five hard vowels are

а э ы о у

and the mute vowel B.

#### $\mathbf{A} \mathbf{a} = \alpha$

when accented and not followed by a palatal vowel (sc. with an intermediate consonant) is pronounced somewhat as in father but is more like the a in the French ma = my (f.), or in the German das Land, e.g. да = yes, ра́но = early, ма́ло = little (adverb). When not accented (and not followed by a palatal vowel) it is of the same quality as accented a only much shorter, e.g. pa6óra = work. If, however, it precedes the accent by more than one syllable, or if, following the accent, it is itself followed by a hard vowel, then it is pronounced like the obscure vowel in English, i.e. like the first a in paternal or like er in order, e. g. тараканъ = cockroach, облако = cloud. Accented and unaccented a, when followed in a subsequent syllable by a palatal vowel, is pronounced much sharper, more like a in the French word Espagne, e.g. in such words as Uránis = Italy (pronounced as Italians pronounce Italia), палеко = far, даю = I give. For the pronunciation of accented a when followed by the soft mute vowel b, cf. § 14. Initial a is very rare in Russian.

#### § 5. $\partial a = e$

(called in Russian э оборо́тное = turned round) occurs only in two or three genuinely Russian words (in which it is always accented) as a demonstrative prefix, but is common in words of foreign origin. Its pronunciation depends on whether it is followed in the next syllable by a hard or a soft (palatalized) vowel. If the vowel in the following syllable is hard, e.g. in the word one this (N.), a is pronounced very open and has the value of e, ai, or a as they are pronounced respectively in the English words ere, air, or fare in the South of England. If the vowel in the following syllable is soft (e.g. n = i)  $\theta$  is pronounced like  $\alpha$  in the Northern English hate, e.g.  $5\pi n = these$  (M.F.N.), but with the lips still closer together. In foreign words a has the value of e in the English word end, e.g. эрмитажь = the hermitage, экземплярь = copy, specimen, Эдуардъ = Edward, when unaccented; if accented. it is liable to the same changes as the demonstrative pronominal prefix mentioned above, e.g. поэть = poet, but поэть = poet (locative case); in the first case 9 is pronounced open, as in 570, in the second more closed, as in эти.

#### § 6. **b**I bi = y

This is the vowel the pronunciation of which causes most difficulty to foreigners, but less to Britons than to Germans or Frenchmen, because a sound very much like it exists in English. Its approximately correct pronunciation is best attained by saying with elenched teeth the syllables containing y i in the following English words: Whitby, till, mill, rill, sill, sandy. Russian words with similar syllables are, e.g. 6 ыль = he was, 7 ы = thou, 8 ы = we, рыль = he dug, сынь = son, лымь = smoke. The pronunciation of ы is comparatively little affected by being unaccented or by subsequent soft vowels. The ы in e.g. была, she was, scarcely differs at all from that in быль. The ы in e.g. были = they were (where it is followed by the soft vowel n) is pronounced not quite so thickly, but is not affected in the same way as is a (§ 5). It is important not to confuse the vowel y now adopted to transliterate ы in English with the semi-vowel y which denotes palatalization. Hi is never initial, and cannot stand after K, T, X, H, ч, ш, or щ, after which letters its place is always taken by и. It is important to notice, however, that after m and in the vowel m is pronounced like ы.

#### § 7. 0 0 = 0

has the value, when accented, of the Italian o in Roma, much opener than the English o in shore, and more like the aw in saw. Examples: one he, nóma = at home. When unaccented the quality of o is entirely changed, and it is pronounced like unaccented a (cf. § 4), i.e. like the obscure vowel in English, i.e. like the first a in paternal, or like the er in order, e.g. in the words nopá = time, xopomó = all right, nóporo = dear (adv.), in all of which it sounds much more like an a than an o. This peculiarity of Russian as spoken in Moscow and to the west and south of that city explains the old English rendering of Mockbá (Moscow) by Muscovy. The effect of a soft vowel on o in a preceding syllable is very marked; the palatalization is anticipated and o is pronounced almost like oi in English oil, e.g. in 66m = pains.

#### § 8. $\mathbf{y} = u$

when accented is pronounced like English oo in boot, e.g. ýтка = duck, могу́ = I can, у́мный = clever; when unaccented it is

shorter, like English oo in book, e.g. móryth = they can, yyréht = cast-iron. It is not affected by a subsequent soft vowel as much as are a, a, and o, though slight anticipation of the palatal also takes place. The reason why Russian u is written y is that the sound could only be represented in Greek by ov, which was incorporated in the Cyrillic alphabet as oy and for long written thus; these were later made into a compound letter 8, which in its turn became gradually assimilated to the Western European y, but with a different value.

#### § 9. Ъъ

called in Russian eps (pronounced ware, the a having the value of a in the English words ware, fare, and the r being rolled) or твёрдый знакь = the hard sign, is the hard mute vowel. This letter, at the time the alphabet was made for the Old Bulgarian language in the ninth century, had the value of a full vowel, and was pronounced like a very short u, probably like the u in the English word bulb, which value it still retains in modern Bulgarian. The letter was adopted by the Russians together with all the rest of the alphabet at the time of their conversion in the tenth century, but there is nothing to prove that there was a sound corresponding to this letter in the Russian as spoken then. though it is probable that at some earlier period the sound had existed also in Russian. In Russian as we know it this letter has never been anything more than a cipher. Its function is a purely negative one, viz. to show that the preceding consonant is not palatalized (softened) but pronounced hard, a fact which the total omission of this letter would indicate equally clearly. In the advertisement columns of the press, in some newspapers, and by people who either make a point of being up-to-date or wish to save time and space, it is frequently omitted, but in all printed books, in the majority of newspapers, and by most people it is still used owing to the authority of tradition and convention. To is commonest as a terminal, it is never initial, and the convention for the use of medial a is that in those words which begin with a soft vowel and are compounded with a preposition ending in a hard consonant, the preposition retains the ъ, е. g. объ + ясне́ніе = explanation is written объяснение.

\$ 10.

Soft Vowels.

The five corresponding soft or palatal vowels are

я е (ѣ) и (йі v) [ё] ю

and the mute vowel b.

 $\mathbf{R} \mathbf{n} = ya$ 

is palatalized a and when accented is pronounced like it, e.g.  $\text{Á}_{\text{ATA}} = Yalta$ . When it is preceded by a consonant it coalesces with it and forms a palatalized consonant, e.g.  $\text{H}\text{\'{H}}\text{H} = nurse$ , where H has the value of gn in the French word Espagne,  $\text{H}\text{\'{H}}\text{H} = uncle$ , where H is like dy in Rudyard.

In the syllable immediately preceding or following the accent  $\pi$  retains its quality but is much shorter. When preceding the accent by more than one syllable its quality changes and it is pronounced like a short i or e, e.g. pagh = rank, row, is pronounced ryad, nom. pl. pagh = the ranks : ryad (cf. § 6), but pagh = a private, ridav or ryedav.

я never occurs after ж, ц, ч, ш, ог щ.

§ 11. E e and **b** b (or **II**ь пь)

e and & in Old Bulgarian represented two distinct sounds. e: ĕ and ħ: ē, but they are both pronounced exactly alike in Russian, where the quantitative differences between ĕ and ē have been lost. The letter в (called ять), which has two forms в and ть (\* and n), is only retained thanks to historical tradition. Like z it has been abandoned in the Government telegraph service, and the words in which its use is etymologically essential have with immense difficulty to be memorized. Unaccented e and b are always pronounced ye as in yet, e.g. Екатерина = Catherine, pron. Yekatyerina (i = Italian i); Бѣлгра́дь = Belgrade, pron. Byelgrád; вда́ = food, pron. yeda. Accented, the pronunciation of e and в is affected like that of a (cf. § 5) by the character of the vowel in the following syllable. If followed by a hard vowel in the following syllable, by a hard terminal consonant, or if terminal themselves, they are pronounced like e in similar case, only preceded by the y semi-vowel, i.e. very open, as in English air, fare, e.g. газе́та = newspaper, pron. gazyéta; уже́ = already, pron. uzhé; Бду = I am riding, pron. yédu; мнв = to me, pron. mnyé; вмъ = I eat, pron. yém.

If followed by a soft (or palatalized) vowel accented e and hare pronounced like ya in the word Yale, or like the English word yea, but with the lips still closer together, e.g. raséthenewspaper (dat. sing.), éche if, hat he is riding, en to her, sahe here. The consonants w, y, m, m absorb the y-sound inherent in e (h), so that when preceded by them e sounds like s, e.g. weh wife, pron. zhen ; yenobkk ham heing, pron. chelavyek; mén neck, pron. shéya; mek echek, pron. shchek though when y and m (which are palatal consonants) are followed by accented e (h), the y-sound is still audible unless the words are spoken very rapidly, e.g. yen; (inst. sing. of yro = what) = than, pron. chyem; yépeh = over, through, across, pron. chyéryez; melb = chink, crack, pron. shchyel' (l' = palatalized l).

#### $[\ddot{\mathbf{E}} \ \ddot{\mathbf{e}} = yo]$

It is a peculiarity of Russian that accented e before a hard consonant or when terminal, although in certain categories of words pronounced as stated above, yet in the majority of cases changes its quality and is pronounced like a Russian o (cf. § 7) preceded by y semi-vowel. This vowel which is really a palatalized o corresponding to hard o is not counted as a separate vowel and is therefore here placed in brackets. At one time it was the custom in writing and printing to differentiate this ë by placing a diaeresis over it, but as Russians know instinctively when to pronounce e as 40, such an aid was felt to be unnecessary and is now seldom used. In this book the pronunciation of e as yo is indicated throughout. As only accented e is pronounced yo, the accent is in these cases omitted and replaced by the diaeresis. Examples: cenó = village, pron. syeló; but cëла = villages, pron. syóla; éсли = if (и is a soft vowel and softens or palatalizes the preceding consonant, therefore e retains its original value), but ёлка = spruce-tree, pron. yólka (a is a hard vowel); вéсело = cheerful (adv.), pron. vyésyelo (e is a soft vowel and palatalizes the c, therefore the first e retains its original value), but весёлая = cheerful (nom. sing. F.), pron. vyesyólaya (because although a is soft, yet the vowel which immediately follows accented e is hard). Accented e followed by a consonant + a is also pronounced yo as в has the value of a hard vowel, e.g. вёль = he led, pron. vyól; нёсь = he brought, pron. nyós; ёжь = hedgehog, pron. yósh (cf. § 19).

Terminal accented e is always pronounced yo except in the one word уже́ mentioned above, e.g. eë = her (acc. sing. from она), pron. yeyó; moë = my (nom. acc. sing. N.), pron. mayó. Just as e, although followed by a hard consonant and vowel, is nevertheless in many cases not pronounced up (cf. p. 23), so conversely it is pronounced yo in many cases where it is not to be expected, i. e. although followed by a soft or palatalized consonant and vowel; such cases are entirely due to analogical influence; e.g. ведёмъ = we are leading, pron. vyedyóm, has by its analogy caused ведёте = you are leading, to be pronounced vyedyotye, although the accented e is followed by palatalized consonant and soft vowel e; телёнокъ = calf, pron. tyelyónak, and телёнкѣ = calf (loc. sing.), pron. tyelyónkye, influenced by the e in the nom, and in all the other cases, although followed by the soft vowel  $\dot{\mathbf{b}}$ ; ropóio = hill, pron. garóyu (instr. sing. of F. decl. in -a), has influenced землёю = earth, pron. zyemlyóyu (instr. sing. of F. decl. in -a) although followed by the soft vowel  $x_0 = yu$ . In cases where there is no analogical influence, accented e before a soft vowel or palatalized consonant is pronounced ye, as would be expected, e.g. Шереметевъ = Sheryemyetyev, мое́й = instr. sing. F. from мой = my, pron. mayéi.

The consonants  $\mathfrak{M}$ ,  $\mathfrak{N}$ ,  $\mathfrak{M}$ ,  $\mathfrak{M}$  absorb the y-sound inherent in  $\ddot{e}$ , so that when preceded by them  $\ddot{e}$  sounds just like 0, e.g.  $\mathfrak{M}\ddot{e}\mathfrak{H}\ddot{e}$  (= gen. pl. from  $\mathfrak{M}\ddot{e}\mathfrak{H}\ddot{e}=wife$ ), pron. zhon;  $\ddot{e}\mathfrak{M}\ddot{e}$  (loc. sing. from  $\mathfrak{N}\ddot{e}\mathfrak{U}=what$ ), pron. chom;  $\ddot{e}\mathfrak{U}\ddot{e}=b$  (= past tense of  $\mathfrak{M}\ddot{e}\mathfrak{U}=b$  (go), pron. shol;  $\ddot{e}\mathfrak{U}\ddot{e}=more$ , pron.  $yeshch\acute{o}$ , colloquially often  $ishch\acute{o}$ .

On the analogy of accented e followed by a hard consonant and vowel being pronounced yo, accented & followed by a hard consonant and vowel is also in certain cases pronounced yo, a result of the two letters being pronounced identically. & is thus pronounced in the following words: сыдла = saddles (nom. sing. сыдло), гийзда = nests (nom. sing. гийздо), зайзды = stars (nom. sing. зайзда), пріобрыть = obtained (разт tense from пріобрыті), цейть = blossomed (разт tense from пріобрыті), прыть = blossomed (разт tense from пріобрыті), апо запечатийнь = marked (ратт. разв. from запечатийнь = marked (ратт. разв. from запечатийнь. Even accented я із in three cases pronounced yo, owing again to the confusion caused by the similarity in the pronunciation of unaccented e, &, and я; the three words in question are: трйсь = shook (разт tense from трясти), запрыть = harnessed (разт tense from запричь), and ей = of her (gen. sing. from ohá). In

all these cases unaccented e,  $\tilde{a}$ , and  $\tilde{a}$  are short vowels of very uncertain quality; they vary from  $\tilde{a}$  to  $\tilde{e}$  and  $\tilde{i}$ , hence the confusion in the pronunciation of certain words where they bear the accent.

#### § 12. II (n i v, cf. § 1)

These four letters represent only one sound, which is that of the Italian i, and the reasons for their existence and for the continuance of their use are purely conventional and traditional.

### и (sometimes called и простое = simple i)

is by far the most common of the four; it is used (i) at the beginning of words, if followed by a consonant; (ii) in the middle of words, if preceded and followed by a consonant; (iii) in the middle of words, if it is preceded by a vowel but at the same time begins a fresh syllable itself; and (iv) at the end of words if it stands as a single vowel, or if, preceded by another vowel, it forms a fresh syllable itself.

ŭ.

called n cb kpárkoň (= i with a short quantity), is only used after another vowel when it forms one syllable (i.e. a diphthong) with it, therefore never at the beginning of words.

i,

called  $\alpha$  ce totrom (=i with a dot), is only used before another vowel when it does not form one syllable with it, therefore never at the end of words.

ν,

called  $\acute{\text{ижица}}$  (= little yoke, dim. of  $\acute{\text{uro}}$  = yoke), is a transcription of the Greek  $\upsilon$  (upsilon), which in late Greek acquired the value of short i. In modern Russian it is only used in a few ecclesiastical words of Greek origin, and its place even in these is often taken by  $\emph{u}$ .

и being a palatal (or soft) vowel always affects the pronunciation of a preceding consonant, though the y-sound which comes between it and a preceding consonant is not always so clearly audible as it is in the case of e. The influence of и also extends further back than the consonant immediately preceding it, and affects the pronunciation of the vowel in the preceding syllable (cf. examples of the pronunciation of hard vowels when followed by и in the next syllable, §§ 5, 7). The consonants most

noticeably affected by a subsequent n are  $\tau$  (t) and  $\tau$  (d),  $\tau$  (n) and  $\tau$  (l), cf. the pronunciation of  $\tau$  = these,  $\tau$  5, and of  $\tau$  = thild, which is pronounced dyitya, the first syllable like d'ye in the phrase how d'ye do, oh = they, pron. anyi; moderna, pron. malyitva. The difficulty which Russians have in pronouncing a clean i-sound after t and d is often to be noticed in their pronunciation of certain French words, such as dites, bottines, or indeed in that of any foreign words where t and d are followed by i, in which cases they are inclined to insert a y-sound between the consonant and the yowel.

It is to be noticed that и after the consonants ж and ш is pronounced like ы, i.e. it becomes hard and loses its palatal quality, e.g. жирь = fat, grease, pron. zhyr, жизнь = life, pron. zhyzn' (n' = palatalized n), широ́кій = broad (nom. sing. masc.), pron. shyroki, ши́ре = broader, pron. shýrye. After ч and щ on the other hand и is always palatal.

Curiously enough initial m in Russian has lost its preiotization; in Russian words beginning with m, the m is pronounced i and not yi as one would expect, e.g. mba = willow is pronounced iva (i = Italian i) and not yiva. The only exceptions to this are certain cases of the personal pronounce he, in which initial m is pronounced he: mmb = he, in which initial m is pronounced he: mmb = he, in which initial m is pronounced he: mmb = he, in which initial m is pronounced he: mmb = he, in which initial m is pronounced he: mmb = he, in which initial m is pronounced he: mmb = he, in which initial m is pronounced he: mmb = he, in which initial m is pronounced he: mmb = he, in which initial m is pronounced he: he in which initial m is pronounced he.

In the syllables -wm, -im, -om, in which the nom. sing. masc. of all Russian adjectives and of very many Russian family names (which are mostly adjectival in form) end, -m is merely the second half of a diphthong and is pronounced like y in the English word boy. It is to be noticed that in diphthongs such as an and on occurring in other words the m is often barely audible, e. g. nomm = go! or come! sounds like padyi, Maxámo = Michael, like Mikhálo.

The effect on the pronunciation of m of the absence or the presence of the accent on it is inappreciable; its pronunciation alters merely quantitatively, not qualitatively. Similarly, m being a palatal vowel, its pronunciation is not affected by the presence of another palatal vowel in any subsequent syllable.

The form of the letter u is derived from the Greek H  $\eta$  ( $\mathring{\eta}\tau a$ ); it is curious to note that while the Greek H has become u in Russian, the Greek N appears in Russian as H (cf. § 24).

For ë cf. § 11.

#### § 13.

#### $\mathbf{H}$ ю = yu

is pronounced like the English word you, i.e. the Italian u preceded by the semi-vowel y, e.g.  $\text{mod}\tilde{mo}$  ( $lyubly\tilde{u}$ ) = I love, I like. The letter itself is a combination of  $\iota$  ( $l\tilde{\omega}\tau a$ ) and o ( $\delta$   $\mu\kappa\rho\delta\nu$ ). Its pronunciation is not affected by the presence or absence of the accent.  $\omega$  is also used to represent French u and German  $\tilde{u}$  in transliteration, e.g. Spiccemb Bruxelles, Hiophoepts Nürnberg.

#### § 14. Ьь¹

called in Russian ерь or мя́гкій знакь = the soft sign, is the soft mute vowel. It is a word which is difficult both to transcribe adequately and to pronounce in English, but may be approximately rendered by year, pronouncing the e like the ai in the English word waist and the final ir with the tip of the tongue, softening or palatalizing them by adding to them the sound of the semi-vowel y, without, however, allowing the additional sound to form an additional syllable. Like z, the hard mute vowel, it once had the value of a full vowel, and was pronounced like a very short i, but in course of time its quality changed, it lost its power of forming a syllable, and became merely the sign of palatalization of a preceding consonant. Unlike 5, however, it still plays an important part in Russian orthography and pronunciation, and could not easily be dispensed with. It is the only visible indication there is of the softening or palatalization of a preceding consonant. As already mentioned, this softening or palatalization is difficult to explain in the terms of a language, such as English, in which this particular process is comparatively rare; the general effect is to add to the preceding consonant a y-sound without allowing the sound thus added to form an additional syllable. The actual sound of a palatalized consonant of course occurs frequently enough in many other languages, e.g. d is palatalized

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> In transliteration b is popularly omitted, but in this book and for all scientific and bibliographical purposes its presence is indicated by an apostrophe, e. g.  $apb = tsar^2$ .

in the English word educate, n in the Italian word ogni, l in the Spanish word llama, but the difficulty in Russian is that these palatalized consonants occur as often as not at the end of words, and it is in these cases that their pronunciation is a stumbling-block to foreigners. A further difficulty is caused by the fact that the consonant palatalized by b, or rather b itself, influences the pronunciation of a hard vowel in the preceding syllable, causing a throwing-back of the i-sound on to the preceding vowel, in German called the i-Vorschlag.

Examples of the similar effect of n on a hard vowel in a preceding syllable have already been given (cf. §§ 5, 7). A good instance of that produced by b is the name of the Russian town Ха́рьковъ, the a of which is pronounced like the ai in the word Cairo; the first syllable Xaps- is pronounced almost like the English word hire, rolling the r. Another word in which the effect of b on a preceding hard vowel is very marked is uapb = tsar', in which the a is pronounced almost like the ai of Cairo; another is the name of the Siberian river Обь, commonly written in English Obi, but really a monosyllabic word, the pronunciation of which is approximately Oip (cf. § 15), oi having the value of oi in the English coin. This throwing-back of the i-sound is far more marked in the case of a and o than in that of the other hard vowels ы and y, while after э the soft mute vowel never occurs. The effect of the soft mute vowel, itself a palatal, on a preceding soft or palatal vowel is most marked in the case of я and е (ѣ), and scarcely noticeable in that of n and w; in the only case where it occurs after ë, i.e. in the 2nd sing. of the present of some verbs, it is, like B, not pronounced at all. An example of B after s is the word ustb = five; in this case the throwing-back of the i-sound is not so marked as in that of the corresponding hard vowel a, but is nevertheless noticeable, while the final T is softened and pronounced, e.g. like the Thi- in the French name Thiers, i. e. it is palatalized, but does not form a syllable. The difference between a followed by a and a followed by a hard vowel is very noticeable in the two words пять = five and пято = heel; in the latter s has the value of ya in the English words yard, yarn, while in the former it is nearly as thin as the ya in Yat, though not quite. E or в followed by ь is pronounced like ya in the word Yale, but with lips still closer together, e. g. ecrb = there is, is pronounced approximately like yaist, i.e. like the English waist, with a palatalized t. The pronunciation of these consonants followed by a is one of the greatest difficulties for Englishmen talking Russian, and the very name of this letter—eps—is one of the hardest words in the language to pronounce correctly.

It is to be noticed that in the 2nd pers. sing. of the present of all verbs, which without exception ends in -шь, the ь has no effect at all, and the ш is pronounced hard, as if it were шь, е. g. идёшь = thou goest, pron. idyósh; видишь = thou seest, pron. vidyish.

ь may occur in the middle as well as at the end of words. though it cannot stand at the beginning of a word. Its function is always the same, viz. to palatalize or soften a preceding consonant. Etymologically it always represents the last remains of a lost i when it occurs in Russian words, and it is also used frequently in the transcription of foreign words. The word boshmy = I shalltake, is pronounced approximately vaizmú or voizmú (ai as in Cairo, oi as in coin), and is of only two, not three syllables; семья = family, is pronounced syemyá; быю = I hit, is pronounced byú (of course as one syllable); чьё = whose (N., interrog. pron.), chyó (as one syllable), and so on. In a number of neuter nouns ending in -e, either i or b may be used, and the pronunciation is the same, e.g. имъне от имънье = property (pronounced imyényeusually as three, but sometimes as four syllables). a is used in the transcription of foreign words such as пьянино = an upright piano, pronounced pianino, as in Italian, and always after l in foreign words before consonants or at the end, to show that the I is to be pronounced as single l in French and not like the Russian deep l, e. g. Ольденбургь = Oldenburg, Брюссель = Brussels. may be added that the effect of b on terminal dentals, nasals, and liquid consonants is far more marked than on labials, palatals, and sibilants. b does not occur after gutturals, which become palatals before it, and is never initial.

#### The Consonants.

§ 15.  $\mathbf{B} \mathbf{6} = b$ 

is pronounced as in English, except medial 6 before a voiceless consonant and final 6 (sc. στ στ), when it becomes voiceless, i.e. p, e.g. ποστ = forehead, pron. lop; róπyστ = pigeon, pron. gólup; roπγότματ = little pigeon, 'my dear', pron. galúpchik.¹

Before a palatal vowel b is palatalized (softened), though it is not as much affected by palatalization as are some other consonants; indeed in rapid speech, when unaccented, the palatalization is sometimes scarcely noticeable, e.g. 6esb = without, pron. byez (one syllable), but in rapid conversation bez, though it is of course never wrong to bring out the palatalization. It is always better to over-palatalize than to under-palatalize. Before an accented palatal vowel b is of course always palatalized, e.g. noofba = victory, pron. pabyéda (three syllables), 6bb = I hit, pron. byu (one syllable).

Before the palatal vowel n, however, even when this is accented, the palatalization of 6 is not expressed, owing to the physical inconvenience involved in doing so, e.g.  $\pi$ 66 $\pi$ 15 = he loves, pron. lyúbit; y6i $\pi$ 114 = murderer, pron. ubitsa, though it is very important to remember that the i here is pronounced like the English ee in e.g. beet, never like i in the words bit, bill. As Greek  $\beta$  was pronounced v at the time the Cyrillic alphabet was made, a new sign, viz. 6, had to be invented to represent b.

§ 16.  $\mathbf{B} \mathbf{B} = v$ 

is pronounced as in English, except medial B before a voiceless consonant and final B (sc. Be or Be), when it becomes voiceless, i.e. f, e.g. pobe = ditch, pron. rof; modébe = love, pron. lyubóif (two syllables, cf. § 14); kobine = ladle, pron. kofsh.

Before a palatal vowel B is palatalized (softened), following 6 in this respect (q.v.). As in the case of 6, the extent to which the palatalization is noticeable depends very much on whether the palatal vowel is accented or not, while before the palatal vowel m

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> It is worth remarking that the word pyons = rouble, is pronounced rup, as if it ended in b.

it is not expressed at all, even when this is accented, e.g. Bechá = spring (of the year), pron. vyesná, which in rapid conversation may often sound like vesná, but Bápa = faith, always vyéra, the yer of which is pronounced like ierre in the French Pierre; Belo = I wind, pron. vyu, like the English view; BHHÓ = wine, pron. vinó (i = Italian i).

In the transliteration of foreign words beginning with eu- and auto- the Greek v is in Russian represented by B, e.g. Евгеній = Eugen, pron. Yevgyéni, автомобиль = motor-car, pron. aftamabil'.

The form of this letter is derived from the Greek.

#### § 17. $\Gamma = g$

is pronounced in various ways. Initial r is always hard, like g in the English go, when followed by a vowel or by the consonants B,  $\pi$ , p, H,  $\pi$ , s. In the word  $r\pi b = where$ , r is usually pronounced like a voiced kh, and may be transcribed  $gh-ghdy\ell$ , though sometimes here also as hard g or even as k.  $\Gamma$  is also pronounced gh in the vocative of  $\Gamma$ ocnó $\pi b = Lord$ :  $\Gamma$ ócno $\pi a$ ,  $\Gamma$  pron. ghospod $\pi a$ .

Medial r before a voiceless consonant is pronounced kh, like ch in the Scotch loch, e.g. rótth = claws, pron.  $k\delta khtyi$ ; before a voiced consonant it is pronounced usually gh, but also sometimes g or k, e.g. rotth = when, pron. kaghda, but also kakda and kagda.

Medial r before a vowel is hard, e.g. mhóro = much, pron. mnóga, but is as often as not pronounced gh,  $mn \circ gha$ ,  $mor \circ gha$  and gha is pronounced magú, but as frequently maghú. In the oblique cases of the word Born = God, r is always pronounced gh, e.g. Bory = to God. In the genitive singular masculine and neuter of all adjectives (in which connexion it is important to remember that most Russian family names are adjectives) and declinable pronouns. -aro. -ero. -oro. and -aro. r is pronounced v, e. g. eró = of him, pron. yevó; Τοπετότο = of Tolstói, pron. Talstóva. The reason for this is that the Old Bulgarian orthography adopted by the Russians was never altered by the latter to correspond to Russian pronunciation, which in this case differed from that of Old Bulgarian. It is a good instance to quote when Russians accuse English of being written one way and spoken another. It is important to remember that the word mhoro = much (quoted above) is not a genitive but an indeclinable pronoun, and is therefore not affected by this rule; likewise the negative немного = little.

Final r (sc. rb) is always voiceless, i.e. k, except in the word Borb = God, when it is pronounced kh as in Scotch loch, e.g. morb = I was able, pron. mok, but Borb always bokh.

r cannot be followed by ы (which it turns into и) nor by ь; r followed by a palatal vowel is pronounced hard, but with a y-sound immediately afterwards, e.g. по Во́мгѣ (= dat. of Во́мга) = along the Volga (pron. Volgye), reorpáфія = geography, pron. gyeográfia, but in rapid speech the y is scarcely noticeable. In the transliteration of foreign names and words r is always used to represent h, a quaint convention established by Peter the Great; x would have been in most cases more rational. The resulting phenomena are often bizarre, e.g. B. Гюго = V. Нидо, Гаруйчъ-Гукъ-фань-Голландъ = Harvich—Hook of Holland, Гуль = Hull (N.B. not, as might be thought, Goole); гидрофо́бія = hydrophobia.

The form of this letter is derived from the Greek.

# § 18. A = d

The pronunciation of the dental consonants in particular is affected by the quality of the subsequent vowel. Initial and medial g before a hard vowel, also initial and medial g+B, I, M, H, P is very frequently, i.e. in the pronunciation of many people, strictly inter-dental, i. e. the tongue while forming the sound touches both the upper and lower teeth. The sound produced is more like the Irish d, rather than the ordinary English d, which is of course not inter-dental, but cerebral, i.e. the tongue while forming the sound touches not the teeth but the roof of On the other hand, no aspirate is audible in the the mouth. Russian & before a hard vowel. In the pronunciation of some Russians the inter-dental quality of the H before a hard vowel is not so noticeable, but as a general rule it is strictly inter-dental as opposed to our purely cerebral d. It may be remarked that it is physically easier to give the full value to the hard vowels а, о, ы, y after an inter-dental than after a cerebral d, and therefore the inter-dental pronunciation for a foreigner is doubly important.

Initial and medial π before a palatal (soft) vowel is, on the other hand, not inter-dental but strongly palatalized, i.e. pronounced like dy in, e.g. the English d'you (think), e.g. πάπη = uncle, pron. dyádya (only two syllables), πέπο = matter, pron. dyélo, Οπέσεα

— Odéssa, pron. Adyéssa, дита = child, pron. dyitya. This explains how it is that Russians, although such good linguists, sometimes mispronounce foreign words, e.g. Dickens, often pronounced Dyickens, Divonne = Dyivonne, &c. Medial д followed by the palatal vowel в + another consonant is difficult for foreigners to pronounce, e.g. седьмой = seventh, is only a disyllable, pron. syedymói, in which dy has the same quality as the d'y in d'you; it is important to remember that it is neither English d nor English j. In the imperatives о́удьте = be (2nd pl.) and са́дьте = be seated (2nd pl.) the дь becomes as it were lost in the т, which is strongly emphasized as if it were тт, so that these words (both very common) are pronounced búttye (u of course as in Italian), syáttye.

Final g (sc. g) becomes voiceless, i. e. t, but as g is a hard vowel g still remains inter-dental, i. e. with the tip of the tongue touching both rows of teeth, e.g. g rogs = g ron, g ron, g rot. Final g (sc. g) is pronounced like palatalized g to g like g in let g rou, e.g. g for g be (2nd sing.), pron. g rot. g which is of course a monosyllable, the g here only representing palatalization. In the transliteration of foreign names g is used to represent g, e.g. g has g rots.

The form of this letter is derived from the Greek.

# § 19. $\mathbf{H} = zh$

is pronounced like s in the English word measure, except when medial before a voiceless consonant and final, sc. жь от жъ, when it becomes voiceless itself, i.e. sh. The effect of a palatal vowel on medial ж is to make it slightly thinner (the y-sound is scarcely noticeable), something between z and zh, though nearer to zh than to z. Examples: женá = wife, pron. zhená, жажда = thirst, pron. zházhdu, мужики́ = peasants, pron. muzhyki, мужъ = husband, pron. mush, ло́жка = spoon, pron. Wshka. For the pronunciation of и, е, and ë after ж cf. §§ 11, 12. ы cannot stand after ж, which turns it into и. ь after final ж has not the effect on preceding vowels described in § 14. ж is always used to represent French j, e. g. журна́ть = magazine (from French journal), and with д (дж) to represent English j (cf. § 18). The form of this letter is of unknown origin.

# $\delta$ 20. 3 = z

is pronounced as in English, except when medial before a voiceless consonant and final, i.e. sp or 35, when it becomes voiceless itself, i. e. s, as in sun. The effect of a palatal vowel on s when medial is merely to soften it by adding to it a y-sound, but in an unaccented syllable this is scarcely noticeable. Examples: 3ποπ malicious, pron. zloi, 3épkano = mirror, pron. zyérkala, 3μαά = winter, pron. zimá, ykásh = decree, pron. ukas (u = Italian u). In words where 3 is followed by κ (q. v.) the latter absorbs the former, e. g. έβκη = I ride, pron. yézhu, with emphasis on the zh. Whenever the prepositions pas-(= dis-), bos-(= up), and hus-(= down), which are only used in composition, are compounded with a word beginning with a voiceless consonant (except c), the 3 is pronounced and written as c; e. g. packóπh = dissent, pron. raskól, bocxóπh = ascent, pron. vaskhót, but pasckásh = tale, pron. raskás.

The form of this letter is derived from the Greek.

# § 21. $\mathbf{K} \mathbf{R} = k$

is pronounced as in English, except before  $\kappa$ ,  $\kappa$ , and  $\kappa$ , when it is usually pronounced  $\kappa$  (i.e. like  $\kappa$  in Scotch  $\kappa$ ). Examples:  $\kappa \kappa \kappa \kappa = how$ , pron.  $\kappa \kappa \kappa = how$ , pron.  $\kappa \kappa \kappa = how$ , pron.  $\kappa \kappa = how$ , pron.  $\kappa \kappa = how$ , pron.  $\kappa = how$ ,  $\kappa =$ 

# § 22. $\mathbf{J} \mathbf{A} = l$

is pronounced in two very distinct ways, according to whether it is followed by a hard or a soft (palatal) vowel. Before a hard vowel, or before a consonant followed by a hard vowel, it is pronounced as in Yorkshire or Scotland, i.e. with the tip of the tongue curling upwards, leaving a space between the tongue and the roof of the mouth. This is often called guttural I, but it is really rather cerebral than guttural. Some Russians pronounce it without touching, or barely touching, the palate with the tip of the tongue, so that it sounds like w. The Polish deep I, written in Polish I, is almost always thus pronounced. Those Englishmen who find it difficult to pronounce the deep Russian I as I, can solve the difficulty at the imminent risk of being mistaken for West. Russians, by fearlessly pronouncing a before hard vowels like English w, e.g. лампа = lamp, pron. lampa, wampa (a of course as in Italian); луна́ = moon, pron. lunâ, wunâ; лобъ = forehead, pron. lop, wop; дось = reindeer, pron. lois, wois; ёдка = Christmas-tree,

pron. yoʻlka, yoʻvka; ягунь = liar, pron. lgun, wgun; быль = he was, pron. byl, very much like the English word bill, or byw, bivw; была́ = she was, pron. byla, or bywa (y here having the sound of y in hymn). It is also like the second l in little.

Before a soft (palatal) vowel, on the other hand, I is pronounced like Italian gl in e.g. degli, or like Spanish ll in e.g. llama, i.e. it is palatal, formed by pressing the whole front part of the tongue against the palate. E. g. лёдь = ice, pron. lyot; ли́па = lime-tree. pron. lyipa; лью = I pour, pron. lyu; люди = people, pron. lyúdyi. Final nb is rather difficult for Englishmen to pronounce, but the throwing-back of the i-sound, contained in the b, on to the preceding vowel is very marked and makes it easier, e.g. боль = pain, pron. very much like boil, but giving the a the value of Italian al. Ilb followed by other consonants is still more difficult to pronounce, but it is made easier by running the preceding syllable right into it, e.g. на льду = on the ice, is pronounced approximately naildú, ai having the value of ai in Cairo, нельзя = it is impossible, pron. nyalezyá in two syllables, -yale- like the American Yale, and I having the value of Italian gl. I followed by a consonant and a palatal vowel is also pronounced like Italian gl, e. g. лже-пророжь = false prophet, pron. lzheprarok. Foreign names ending in l are written in Russian with final MB, e.g. BDIOCCEMB = Brussels, but foreign words which are regarded as having become Russian are written with it, e.g. kanutáj = capital (sc. money).

The form of this letter is derived from the Greek.

# § 23. M M = m

is pronounced as in English. Final MB is difficult to pronounce; it is of course softened, just as m in the English word mew, but in rapid conversation this is scarcely noticeable. It is easier for foreigners to express palatalization by emphasizing the throwing-back of the i-sound, e.g. cemb = seven, pron. syame, syaim, like the English words same, aim; Bócemb = eight, pron. vóisyame, which in rapid conversation becomes vóisim or vóisyem. In the syllable MM the y-sound is very difficult to express after M, even for Russians, and is therefore inaudible, e.g. MMMO = past (prep.), pron. mima.

# $\S$ 24. H H = n

is pronounced as in English. The same applies to final Hb as to final Mb; the sound Hb is, however, more familiar to Englishmen as

it is exactly the same as French and Italian gn, e. g. Boulogne is written in Russian Булонь. In Russian words ending in нь the palatalization is if anything more marked than in those with final мь, and the throwing-back of the i-sound is equally marked, e. g. конь = steed, is pronounced koigne, like Boulogne, though in rapid conversation it sounds like the English word coin pronounced very short, just as Boulogne spoken by many Englishmen sounds like boo-loin. In the syllable ни the y-sound must always be expressed, though it is difficult for Englishmen to do so, e. g. съ ними = with them, is pronounced snyimi, -yi- having the sound of the English word ye.

The Russian H is derived from the Greek N. The reason why it is in Russian written H is that while the middle stroke of our N has remained sloping, the middle stroke of the same letter in Russian has become horizontal; in Old Bulgarian the letter was written H and in Russian it has become H.

# § 25. If n=p

is pronounced as in English. Palatalized  $\pi$ , i.e.  $\pi$  before a palatal vowel, is pronounced simply py-, as in English piano, except in the syllable  $\pi\pi$ , where it is almost impossible to express the y-sound, e.g.  $\pi\phi$  = pen, pron. like the French word Pierrot, but  $\pi\pi\pi = he$  drank, pron. like the English word peel. Final  $\pi$  is very rare; it is difficult for an Englishman to express the  $\pi$ , but its effect on the preceding vowel is obvious, e.g.  $\pi \pi = he$  (one syllable),  $\pi pe$  as in English tape, but  $\pi \pi = fail$ , pron. tsyape (one syllable),  $\pi pe$  as in English tape, but  $\pi \pi = fail$ , pron. tsyape as in English tepid.

The form of this letter is derived from the Greek.

# § 26. $\mathbf{P} \mathbf{p} = r$

is pronounced as in Scotland; it is always rolled with the tip of the tongue, and never under any circumstances pronounced as in English or German. Exactly the same applies to palatalized p and to pu as to palatalized n and nn, e.g. Phhábh = Ryazan, pron. Ryazagne (-gne as in French); but Phra = Riga, ri- as in English reel, but rolling the r. Medial and final ps is difficult to pronounce, but is made easier by the marked throwing-back of the i-sound, e.g. naph = tsar, pron. tsair, rolling the r(ai as in Cairo), Xáphkobb = Harkov, pron. Hairkaf (ai again as in Cairo), eph = the name of the letter b, pron. yair, rolling the r (ai as in the English word ain),

but eps = the name of the letter s, pron. yare, rolling the r (like the English word fare).

The form of this letter is derived from the Greek.

§ 27.  $\mathbf{C} \mathbf{c} = s$ 

is pronounced always like English voiceless s in e.g. second. Palatalized c is simply s + the y-sound, which latter is, however, inaudible in the syllable cm, e.g. ckm = seed, pron. syémya, but cma = strength, pron. sila or siwa; cmay = I sit, pron. sizhú. The same applies to medial and final ca as to ps and ms, e.g. móchka = pug, pron. móiska, oi as in the English word moist, though the throwing-back of the i-sound is not always so easy, e.g. Pych = the old name of Russia, pron. Rúis, in one syllable, u as oo in English, with a slight i-sound between the u and s, which gives the s a somewhat minced or affected character. After a palatal vowel the effect of final b is only noticeable in the attenuation of the s, e.g. 606ch = I fear (where -ch is the reflexive pronoun), pron. bayús; mówch = I wash myself, pron. móyus; in these cases the y-sound after the final c is distinctly audible, but very difficult for foreigners to reproduce.

The form of this letter is derived from the Greek.

§ 28.  $\mathbf{T} \mathbf{T} = t$ 

Initial and medial т before a palatal vowel is, on the other hand, not inter-dental or dental, but strongly palatalized, i. e. pronounced like ty in e. g. let you, e.g. rы́о = body, pron. tyélo or tyéwo; итти́ = to go (on foot), pron. ityí; тебѣ = to thee, pron. tyebyé; тёмно = dark, (adv.), pron. tyómna.

Initial or medial  $\tau$  followed by  $\tau$  a consonant is difficult to pronounce, e.g.  $\tau_{\text{DMA}} = darkness$ , is only one syllable, pron. tyma. Final  $\tau_{\text{DMA}}$  is pronounced in the same way and is if anything more difficult for most beginners; it is of very common occurrence, as it is the ordinary infinitival ending, e.g.  $\tau_{\text{DMA}} = to speak$ , pron.  $\tau_{\text{DMA}} = to speak$ , pron.  $\tau_{\text{DMA}} = to speak$ , pron.  $\tau_{\text{DMA}} = to speak$  in three syllables, the  $\tau_{\text{DMA}} = to speak$  in three syllables, the  $\tau_{\text{DMA}} = to speak$  is a mispronunciation alters the meaning of the word, e.g.  $\tau_{\text{DMA}} = to speak$  (3rd sing.), pron.  $\tau_{\text{DMA}} = to speak$  (3rd sing.)

The pronunciation of final  $p_b$  and  $p_b$  is made more difficult by the fact that there is not with them, except when accented, any throwing-back of the *i*-sound on to the preceding vowel, e. g.  $p_b^2$  is  $p_b^2$  in two syllables with palatalized  $p_b^2$ ; but, N.B., math = mother, pron. maity in one syllable with palatalized  $p_b^2$ . For Englishmen in particular it is important to remember that final  $p_b^2$  is neither  $p_b^2$  nor  $p_b^2$ , but palatalized, just as it is in the English word actual; the difficulty is to pronounce the palatalized  $p_b^2$  at the end of a word with no vowel following and without letting it form an extra syllable.

The form of this letter is derived from the Greek; the italic form m (and that of the written capital) is the result of the gradual lengthening downwards of the two ends of the bar across the top of the letter T T.

# $\delta 29. \qquad \Phi \Phi = f$

is pronounced as in English, and occurs only in words of foreign origin, e. g. φοτότραφτ = photographer, pron. fatógraf.

This letter is derived directly from the Greek.

# § 30. $\mathbf{X} \mathbf{x} = kh$

is pronounced like ch in Scotch or German loch by some, but by others more like the English aspirate h. X cannot be followed by h (which it turns into h) nor by h. It is always used to render the Greek  $\chi$  (from which it is derived), e.g. apxeonórih = archaeology.

# § 31. II $\pi = ts$

is pronounced as in English lots, e. g. Цари́цынъ (lit. Tsaritsa's or Empress's), a town on the Volga, pron. Tsaritsyn; Ца́рское Село́

(lit. Tsar's or Emperor's village), a town near Petrograd, pron. Tsárskoye Syeló. It is also used to render the Latin c before e, i, and ae, e. g. Цицеро́нъ = Cicero, Це́зарь = Caesar.

The form of the letter is of unknown origin.

§ 32.  $\Psi = ch$ 

The form of this letter is of Semitic origin.

§ 33. III  $\mathbf{m} = sh$ 

is pronounced as in the word *English*. In cannot stand after III, which turns it into II. For the pronunciation of e, II, and ë after III of. §§ 11, 12. Is after final III has the effect on preceding vowels already described in § 14, but it is important to remember that the 2nd sing. of the presents of all verbs which without exception ends in -III is always pronounced as if it were written -III.

The form of this letter is of Semitic origin.

§ 34. III, m = shch

is broadly speaking pronounced as in Ashchurch, but it is to be noticed that it is pronounced in various ways by various people. By many it is pronounced shch as described, but by many others like a very emphatic sh with a palatal quality; thus the word ma = cabbage-soup (a national dish) is by some pronounced shchi (i as in cheese), by others shyi (in one syllable, the i as in cheese).

Being a compound of m and u it is made palatal by the palatal quality inherent in u, and thus all vowels are pronounced after it as they are after u, cf. § 32. M cannot stand after m, which turns it into m. Lafter final m has the effect on preceding vowels already described in § 14.

The form of this letter in Old Bulgarian was  $\mu$ , that is to say a m superimposed on a  $\tau$ , and in that language it had the value of sht, which it still retains in Modern Bulgarian.

§ 35.  $\Theta \bullet = f$ 

is the Greek  $\theta$  and is called in Russian entá (pron. fitá). It is only used in words and names of Greek origin, e.g.  $\Theta$ omá = Thomas, pron. Famá;  $\Theta$ eogócia = Theodosia (a town in the Crimea, pron. Feodósia).

The Greek  $\xi$  is represented in Russian by кс, е. g. Алекса́ндръ = Alexander, аксіо́ма = axiom. The Latin x by кз, е. g. экза́менъ = examination (educational), от кс, е. g. эксплоата́ція = exploitation.

### PHONETIC TRANSCRIPTION

§ 36. In the foregoing, §§ 4-35, the ordinary English letters only have been used to render the pronunciation of the Russian vowels and consonants. This has been done for the sake of general utility, but it must be understood that such a method of transcription is not only unscientific but also only approximately accurate. Appended is a list of the Russian sounds already enumerated and described together with their approximate equivalents in the signs currently used for phonetic spelling in England for the benefit of those students who are acquainted with the latter; needless to say that in a work of this size neither the list of Russian sounds nor that of their equivalents can pretend to include all the variations of pronunciation which occur, variations which are largely conditioned by the varying rates of spoken speech.

Russia letter.		honetic scripti	
a	{followed by hard vowel} or final	a	
. 27	followed by a palatal vowel or by b	a	

Russian letter.	tv	Phonetic anscription.	
a wn	en pronounced like scure vowel in Engl	ish $\theta$	
ə fol	llowed by a hard vov	vel &	
" foll	owed by a palatal vo	wel e	
ы		ï	
0	when accented	9	
,,	when unaccented	ə	
y		u	
я		ja or ja	
e (ѣ)		j€ or je	
и		i or ji	
ë	jə	(after ж, ч, ш, щ	= 5)
10		ju	
ь		•	
б	•	b	
В		$\mathbf{v}$	
r		g d	
д			
OHC .		3	: .
3		Z	
K		k	
JI		1	
M	•	$\mathbf{m}$	
H		n	
π		$\mathbf{p}$	
p		r	
C C		S	
T		t	
ф		$\mathbf{f}$	
x	•	x	
ц		ts	
ч		ţļ'	
m		600	
щ		s't's' or sts' or s	1
⊕		1	

#### THE ACCENT

§ 37. As has already been remarked, the accent in Russian is mobile, i.e. it may fall on any syllable. There are certain rules which govern it in certain cases, but their value is discounted by the existence of numerous exceptions. Correct accentuation is one of the greatest difficulties that Russian presents to the foreigner, as a misplaced accent may lead to disconcerting errors; at the best a foreigner who puts the accent on the wrong syllable will merely not be understood at all. The difficulty is increased by the fact that neither in writing nor in print is the accent marked, and in addition by the fact that in many cases words, though spelt identically, have quite different meanings according to where the accent is placed, e.g. myka = flour, but myka = torment; many = Ipay, but many = Iweep; many = waters (nom.pl.), but mgk = some water (gen. sing.), and many others.

Although the Russians talk much more musically than the English, the Russian accent is not a musical, but a stress accent. The accented syllable is always very strongly emphasized (in contrast to French), and the unaccented syllables consequently lose in some cases the full value of their vowels, e.g. unaccented o is always pronounced a (like our u in but), e.g. gopora = road, pron. daróga; unaccented я like i or e, e. g. пятьдесять = fifty (lit. cing dizaines), pron. pidyesyát. It should be mentioned that in a number of cases the same word is often accented differently by different but equally well educated Russians, e.g. тёмно and темно́ = dark (adv.), иначе and иначе = otherwise, ворота and ворота = gateway, and also that the accent is often withdrawn altogether from the noun by a preposition governing it, e.g. 3á pyky = by the hand (руку = acc. sing. of рука́ = hand), на голову = on the head (sc. on to; róloby = acc. sing. of rolobá = head, bó-brems = in goodtime (the hyphen is used to distinguish it from BO BPÉMH + gen. = during ...), and sometimes from the past tense of a verb by the negative particle, e.g. не быль, не было = was not, не даль = didnot give, though such cases both as regards nouns and verbs are the exception rather than the rule.

Failing the help viva voce of a competent teacher, beginners are recommended to read only accented texts, of which many have been published, in order to get used to the accent and also to read poetry, where the position of the accent is always indicated by the metre.

A list of accented texts published is given in the bibliography at the beginning of this book. By observing carefully the accents on the most commonly used cases and parts of the most commonly used nouns, verbs, &c., the student will learn where to place the accent far more quickly than by learning rules and exceptions which always contain forms that are rarely used. The accent is invariably marked in all dictionaries, even in those Russian dictionaries printed in Russia for the exclusive use of Russians, but in Russian grammars printed in Russia it is usually omitted.

### THE DECLENSION OF THE SUBSTANTIVES

§ 38. There are three genders in Russian—Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter; and two numbers—Singular and Plural, though traces of the Dual are numerous in the declensions.

There is no definite or indefinite article in Russian corresponding to our the, a, an. The context is usually sufficient to indicate which is meant, whether the or a; otherwise recourse must be had to the demonstrative or indefinite pronouns. The demonstrative pronoun is sometimes used as a definite article after the noun which it qualifies, though only in the colloquial language (cf. § 48).

There are six cases in Russian, viz. Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative, Instrumental, and Locative. This last is sometimes called the Prepositional, because it is never used except after one of the five prepositions: o = concerning, bb = in, bb = in,

# § 39. Masculine Nouns having the Nom. Sing. in -ъ, -ь, -й.

Almost all masculines end in -ъ, -ъ, or -й. All nouns which end in -ъ and -й are masculine.

All nouns which end in -5 are called hard, those ending in -5 or -ñ soft; those case-endings of a hard noun which begin with a hard vowel, begin with a soft vowel if the noun is soft, otherwise they are similar for both hard and soft nouns.

A peculiarity of the masculine nouns is that in the case of animate things the acc. sing. is the same as the gen. sing., while in the case of inanimate things it is the same as the nom. sing.; this rule applies also to the plural.

Examples: (hard) столь = table; народь = people, nation; (soft) царь = tsar'; оле́нь = deer; сара́й = coach-house.

#### Singular.

N.	столъ	народъ	царь	оле́нь
G.	стола	наро́да	царя	оле́ня
D.	столу	народу	царю́	оле́ню
A.	столъ	народъ	царя	оле́ня
I.	столомъ	народомъ	царёмъ	оле́немъ
$\mathbf{L}$ .	столъ́	народъ	царъ́	оле́нъ̀
	· ·	Plural.		12.1
N.	столы	народы	цари́	оле́ни
G.	столо́въ	наро́довъ	царе́й	оле́ней
D.	стола́мъ	народамъ	царя́мъ	оленямъ
A.	столы	народы	царей	оле́ней

царя́ми

царя́хъ

оленями

оле́няхъ

# Singular.

народами

народахъ

I.

столами

столахъ

	Singular.		Plural.
N.	capáň		сара́и
G.	сарая	- 1	сара́евъ
D. '	capáro		сараямъ
A.	capář		сара́и
I.	сара́емъ		сараями
L.	capář		сараяхъ
			_

#### OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. The acc. sing. and plur. of all masculine nouns is the same as the nom. sing. and plur. in the case of inanimate, and the same as the gen. sing. and plur. in the case of animate things: thus the acc. sing. of cross is cross, but of царь—царя́.
- 2. The masc nouns in -ь have borrowed the ending of the gen. plur. -ей (e. g. царей) from another declension.
- 4. The inst. sing. and gen. plur. of all masc. nouns in -жь, -чь, -чь, -шь, -шь, епд respectively in -емь (-ёмь if accented) and -ей, е. g. това́рищь, = companion, inst. sing. това́рищемь, gen. pl. това́рищей; ножь = knife, inst. sing. ножёмь (pron. nazhóm), gen. pl. ноже́й; ключь = key, inst. sing. ключёмь, gen. pl. ключёй; экипа́жь = carriage, inst. sing. экипа́жемь, gen. pl. экипа́жей. All these nouns were originally soft and have only latterly become hard. In the same way the nouns ending in -ць were originally soft; of these, those which have the last syllable accented have become hard throughout, e.g. оте́ць = father, makes inst. sing. отцо́мь and gen. plur. отцо́вь, but those which are not accented on the last syllable still make their inst. sing. in -емь, and their gen. plur in -евь, e. g. мъ́сящь = moon or month, inst. sing. мъ́сящемь and gen. plur. мъ́сящевь.
- 5. A large number of words which contain e or o in the last syllable of the nom. sing. lose this vowel in the oblique cases when, while on the e or o in the nom., the accent afterwards passes to the case-ending, and sometimes also when the accent throughout is on the first syllable; the emphasis on the accented syllable is so strong that the weak vowel of the unaccented syllable disappears, e.g. оте́ць = father, gen. sing. отца́, dat. sing. отца́, nom. pl. отцы́; ва́мокь = castle, за́мка; дворе́ць = palace, gen. sing. дворца́; песо́кь = sand, песка́; кусо́къ = piece, куска́; день = day, gen. sing. дня. Іп левь = lion, лёдь = ice, and лёнь = flax, e becomes ь to show that the л remains soft, e.g. лёдь = ice, gen. sing. льда, but лобь = forehead, gen. sing. льда, with hard л. The e is retained in cases where

its omission would cause an excessive accumulation of consonants, e.g. мертвець = corpse makes gen. sing. мертвеца. A few words in -éй make gen. sing. in -ья, dat. in -ью, nom. pl. -ьи, &c.; e.g. ручей = stream, gen. sing. ручья, also воробей = sparrow, муравей = ant, and соловей = nightingale, nom. pl. соловья, &c.

Words in -ёмъ make their gen. sing. in -йма, dat. sing. -йму, &с.; e.g. заёмъ = loan, gen. займа. Бое́цъ = fighter, gen. бойца́, and за́нцъ = hare, by analogy, makes за́йца.

In other cases where the same process apparently occurs the e and o have merely been inserted in the nom. sing. to make pronunciation easier, e. g. вътерь = wind, gen. sing. вътра; огонь = fire, огна; ўголь = corner, угла, ўголь = coal, ўгля.

- 6. Masculine nouns denoting divisible matter have a gen. sing. in -y (-10) when the gen. is used in a partitive sense, e.g. φύητε μάκο = a pound of tea, from μαἄ = tea; μάμο μαρόμυ = few people (lit. little of people), but μητά μαρόμα = the opinion of the people, though this gen. has become usual in a number of cases where there is no idea of partition, e.g. ch bάμυ = by sight, безь тόμκυ = without sense, ch háy = from below, ch bépxy = from above, ότι ρομυ = from one's birth, άσι μομυ = out of the house (or home).
- 7. Several nouns have a loc. sing. in -ý, always accented, which is used after the prepositions by = in and ha = on, e.g. by cary = in the garden, ha mosty = on the bridge, by ... roxy = in the year..., by they = in the forest, ha begin = on the bank (or shore), ha hyry = in the meadow, ha kpań = on the edge (from kpaň), by yeay = in the corner (nom. ýroah), ha horý = on the floor, and others. Cf. § 68.
- N.B. After the prepositions o (obs) = about and npn = near the loc. in -b is used.
- 8. Several nouns have a nom. pl. in -á, -я, which is always accented. This is really the old nom. dual, but its use has extended from the dual to the plural; e.g. глазь = eye, nom. pl. глаза; берегь = bank, nom. pl. берега=the two banks of a river, but also = the shores of the ocean; poгь = horn, nom. pl. porа; бокь = side, nom. pl. бока; also вечерь = evening has nom. pl. вечера; домъ = house, дома; голось = voice, голоса; колоколь = bell, колокола; городь = town makes города; докторь = doctor, доктора; профессорь = professor, профессора; учитель = teacher, учитела; въкь = age, century, годь = year, and край = country have both въки and въка, годы and года, край and край. A few have two forms of the

nom. pl. with different meanings: волось = hair, has волоса = hairs. and волосы=hair (coll.), a head of hair; образь = form, species. manner, has образа = holy images, and образы = forms; хивов = bread, has кивба = the crops, and кивбы = loaves; цввть = colour. has цвъта = colours and цвъты = flowers (for the sing. the diminutive form цвёто́къ is used, in the sense of a single flower or blossom): мъхъ = (1) bellows, has nom. pl. мъхи, = (2) fur, has мъха = furs. Several masculine nouns have a nom. pl. in -bs. which is really a feminine collective sing. in form, though used as a masculine nom. pl. Thus брать = brother makes nom. pl. братья; стуль = chair, nom. pl. стулья; листь = leaf or sheet of paper makes листья = leaves, leafage (but regularly листы = sheets of paper); другь = friend, nom. pl. друзья; мужь = husband, мужья; зять = brotherin-law or son-in-law, зятья; князь = prince, князья. The last four make their gen. pl. in -ей, like парь, e.g. друзей, while братья makes gen. pl. братьевь, стуль-стульевь, as do some other less common nom. plurals in -bs; all, however, from the dat. pl. onwards go alike, e.g. друзьямъ, inst. pl. друзьями, loc. pl. друзьяхъ.

Сынъ = son has nom. pl. сыновья, gen. pl. сыновей, dat. pl. сыновья́къ, &c. Сосѣдъ = neighbour and чёрть = devil make their plural like царь throughout, nom. pl. сосѣди, gen. pl. сосѣди, &c.

A number of masculine nouns in -инъ, denoting individuals, make nom. pl. in -e and in the gen. pl. have no ending: гражданинь = citizen makes nom. pl. граждане, gen. pl. граждань, from the dat. pl. onwards being regular, viz. гражданамъ, &c.; англичанинъ = Englishman, nom. pl. англичане, gen. pl. англичанъ. Thus also татаринъ = Tartar, nom. pl. татары; болгаринъ = Bulgarian, болгары; датчанинъ = Dane, датчане (also accented датчанинъ, датчане); москвитанинъ = citizen of Moscow, москвитане; римлянинъ = Roman, римляне; славанинъ = Slav, славане; дворянанъ = nobleman, дворане; крестьанинъ = peasant, крестьане, and (not to be confused with the last, though of identical derivation) христіанинъ = Christian, nom. pl. христіане.

Тосподанъ = Mr., makes nom. pl. господа́ = Messieurs, 'Gentlemen!' (also 'Ladies and Gentlemen!'), gen. pl. господъ, dat. pl. господамъ, &с. Хозя́инъ = host, householder, makes nom. pl. хозя́ева = (1) hosts and (2) host and hostess, gen. pl. хозя́евъ, dat. pl. хозя́евамъ, &с. Several regular masculine nom. plurals make

their gen. pl. without any ending, as the above; this is really the old gen. pl. of this declension, while the form termed 'regular' in -овь, -евь was borrowed from another declension. Thus волосы = hair (collective) makes gen. pl. волось; разь = time, stroke, once, gen. pl. разь; соддать = soldier, gen. pl. соддать; глазь = eye, gen. pl. глазь; футь = foot (measure), gen. pl. футь, ог футовь; аршинь = yard (measure), gen. pl. аршинь.

The gen. pl. of человъкъ = human being, the only case of the plural of this word which is used, is человъкъ, and it is only used

after numerals, e.g. сто человъть = a hundred people.

9. Богь = God has a voc. sing. Боже, otherwise it is declined regularly, like столь, viz. Бога, &c. Господь = Lord, has a voc. sing. Господы, and though soft in the nom., is from the gen. sing. onwards declined like столь, viz. Господа, &c. Христось = Christ, is from the gen. sing. onwards declined like столь, viz. Христа́, &c. The old voc. of оте́ць = father occurs in the phrase Отте нашь = Pater noster.

# § 40. Feminine Nouns having the nom. sing. in -a, -s.

Almost all nouns ending in -a, -n are feminine. All those which end in -a are called hard, those ending in -n soft; those case-endings of a hard noun which begin with a hard vowel begin with a soft vowel if the noun is soft, otherwise they are similar for both hard and soft nouns.

As regards the accusative case, the acc. sing. of all nouns in -a, -n is quite different from the nom. sing., whether the thing be animate or inanimate. The acc. pl. of feminine nouns in -a, -n is the same as the nom. pl. in the case of inanimate, the same as the gen. pl. in the case of animate things. This is no doubt due to the influence of the masculine declension.

Examples: (hard) же́нщина = woman, cecrpá = sister. (soft) земля́ = land, а́рмія = army. Singular.

N.	же́нщина		сестра	земля́	а́рмія
G.	же́нщины	* * .	сестры	земли	а́рмін
D.	же́нщинѣ		сестрѣ	землъ́	а́рміи
A.	же́нщину		сестру́	землю	а́рмію
I.	же́нщиной		сестрой	землёй	арміей
L.	же́нщинѣ		сестрѣ	землѣ	а́рміп

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#### Plural

N.	же́нщины	сёстры	земли	а́рміи
G.	же́нщинъ	сестёръ	земе́ль	а́рмій
D.	же́нщинамъ	сестра́мъ	земля́мъ	а́рміямъ
A.	же́нщинъ	сестёръ	зе́мли	а́рміи
I.	женщинами	сестрами	земля́ми	арміями
L.	же́нщинахъ	сестрахъ	земля́хъ	а́рміяхъ
14.	женщинахь	сестрахь	SCMAHAB	

#### OBSERVATIONS.

1. The inst. sing. of fem. nouns in -a, -s has two forms, the short -on, -en and the long -on, -en. The latter is the older and is still often used in poetry when an additional syllable is required, but in the colloquial language the shorter form is almost always used.

2. The gen. pl. of all fem. nouns ending in a vowel+ $\pi$ , which case would end in  $\mu$  if the last letter of the stem were a consonant, is always written with an  $\pi$  and is a diphthong, e. g.  $m \in \pi$  makes gen. pl.  $m \in \pi$  makes apmin.

The gen. pl. of fem. nouns ending in -ья́ ends in -е́й; e. g. статья́ = newspaper article, gen. pl. стате́й. Да́дя = uncle also has gen. pl. да́дей, and судьа́ = judge, gen. pl. су́дей (судья́ is otherwise declined just like земля́, viz. gen. sing. судьи́, nom. pl. су́дьи, &c.).

3. The dat. and loc. sing. of fem. nouns ending in -iя ends in -iя, e.g. а́рмія = army, dat. and loc. sing. а́рмін; реля́гія = religion, реля́гін; Россі́я = Russia, Россі́я; А́нглія = England, А́нглін.

Many fem. Christian names are spelt in two ways in the nom. sing., either -iя or -ья; if spelt in the former way, the dat. and loc. sing. ends in -iи; if in the latter, then in -ьь: e.g. Софія = Sophia, dat. and loc. sing. Софія, but Софья, dat. and loc. sing. Софьь; the former spelling is preferable.

- 4. The gen. sing. and nom. acc. pl. of all fem. nouns in -ка, -га, -ха, -ча, -ща, -жа, -ша end in -ки, -ги, -хи, -чи, -щи, -жи, -ши because ы cannot stand after a guttural or after ч, щ, ж, ог ш.
- 5. The inst. sing. of all fem. nouns ending in -ца, -ца, -ца, -жа, -ша ends in -ой (sometimes written -ей) if the accent falls on the ending, and in -ей if the accent falls on the root, e.g. Царица = Tsaritsa has inst. sing. царицей, but душа́ = soul has inst. sing. душо́й.

6. A number of words whose stems end in two consonants insert a vowel between these two consonants in the gen. pl. in order to facilitate their pronunciation; e.g. сестра = sister has gen. pl. сестръ; ко́пка = cat—ко́шекъ; земля = land—земе́лъ; дере́вня = cillage—дереве́нъ; ба́рышня = young lady—ба́рышень. A few such soft nouns become hard in the gen. pl., e.g. пъ́сня = song, gen. pl. пъ́сенъ; ба́сня = fable—ба́сенъ; ба́шня = tover—ба́шенъ. Nouns with ь in the stem lengthen this to e in the gen. pl., e.g. судьба́ = fate, gen. pl. суде́бъ; those with й in the stem likewise, e.g. копе́йка = kopek (the coin), gen. pl. копе́екъ (also spelt копъ́йка, копъ́екъ).

7. It is to be noted that there are a few masculine nouns and a number of names (mostly diminutives) ending in -a and -н and declined like feminine nouns: сдуга = male servant, и о́ноша = youth, дя́дя = uncle, судья́ = judge, убійца = murderer, пья́ница = drunkard.

Алёша = diminutive of Алексвії = Alexis; Ва́ня = dim. of Ива́нт = John; Воло́дя = dim. of Влади́міръ = Vladimir; Ко́ля = dim. of Никола́й = Nicholas; Ма́ша = dim. of Миха́йлъ = Michael; Пе́тя = dim. of Пётръ = Peter; Са́ша = dim. of Алекса́ндръ = Alexander; Серёжа = dim. of Сергъ́й = Sergius, and many others; notice also the name Ильа́ = Elias.

# § 41. Neuter Nouns having the nom. sing. in -o, -e.

Almost all neuter nouns end in -o or -e. All nouns which end in -o or -e are neuter.

All nouns which end in -o are called kard, those ending in -e soft.

Examples: (hard) cenó = village.

(soft) { mópe = sea. uménie = property (sc. land).

		Singular.	
Ŋ.	село	мо́ре	имѣ́ніе
G.	села́	мо́ря	индии
D.	селу́	мо́рю	имбнію
A.	село	мо́ре	имѣніе
I.	селомъ	мо́ремъ	имѣ́ніемъ
L.	селѣ	мо́рѣ	имѣ́ніи

<sup>1</sup> N.B. прислуга = a male or female servant is feminine.

		Plural.	
N.	сёла	моря́ .	имъ́нія
G.	сёлъ	море́й	имѣ́ній
D.	сёламъ	мора́мъ	амкінфии
A.	сёла	моря́	имѣнія
I.	сёлами	моря́ми	имѣніями
$\mathbf{L}$ .	сёлахъ	моря́хъ	имфнінхъ

#### OBSERVATIONS.

1. The neuter nouns in -e have borrowed the ending of the gen. pl. -eŭ (e. g. mopéň) from another declension.

Nouns in -ье as a rule make their gen. pl. in -ей, e.g. ружьё = gun, gen. pl. ружей, but платье = dress or suit, makes платьевь, and куппанье = dish (sc. the food)—куппаньевь.

Abstract nouns in -ie can also be spelt-ье, е. g. жела́ніе от жела́нье = wish; in the former case they are declined like имъ́ніе and in the latter like мо́ре.

- 2. Neuter nouns in -че, -ще, -же, -ще, -це follow the hard declension, but make their inst. sing. in -емъ, е g. учи́лище = school, inst. sing. учи́лищемъ, but gen. sing. учи́лища, gen. pl. учи́лищъ.
- 3. A number of hard neuter nouns whose stems end in two consonants insert a vowel between these two consonants in the gen. pl. in order to facilitate their pronunciation, e. g. окно = window, gen. pl. о́конъ; письмо́ = letter—пи́семъ.

Aπή = egg makes gen. pl. πάητ, = two syllables, while the nom. pl. is άπηα.

4. A number of neuter nouns have unexpected forms in the pl., thus я́блоко = apple, nom. pl. я́блоки, gen. pl. я́блокь; илечо́ = shoulder, nom. pl. иле́чи, gen. pl. иле́чь; коль́но = knee, nom. pl. коль́ни, gen. pl. коль́но, śко = ear makes у́ши, уше́й, о́ко = eye (poetic)— о́чи, оче́й; in the dat., inst., and loc. pl. these all follow село́, e.g. inst. pl. я́блоками, уша́ми, илеча́ми (the endings in -и аге relics of the old neuter dual, the eyes, ears, and shoulders being naturally mentioned in the dual oftener than in the plural). Не́бо = heaven makes nom. pl. небеса́, gen. pl. небе́съ; чудо = miracle—чудеса́, чуде́съ, dat. pl. небеса́мъ, чудеса́мъ, &с. О́блако = cloud has nom. pl. облака́, gen. pl. облако́въ; очки́ = spectacles has gen. pl. очко́въ; су́дно = vessel has nom. pl. суда́, gen. pl. судо́въ.

Де́рево = tree makes nom. pl. дере́вья, gen. pl. дере́вьевь, dat. pl. дере́вьямъ, &c.; иеро́ = feather, pen—пе́рья,—пе́рьевъ, &c.; крыло́ = wing—кры́лья, &c. There is a whole category of words which are neuter in the pl. and masculine in the sing.; these are all names of young living things, e.g. peoáta = children, (gen. pl. peoátъ), peoëнокъ = child; щена́та = puppies, sing. щено́къ; цыпла́та = young fowls, sing. цыпле́нокъ; жерео́ята = foals, sing. жерео́енокъ; тела́та = calves, sing. теле́нокъ; поросе́нокъ; кота́та = kittens, sing. коте́нокъ; all these words in the sing. come under obs. 5, § 39, i.e. gen. acc. sing. рео́енка, &c.

# § 42. Feminine Nouns having the nom. sing. in -b.

A number of fem. nouns, especially abstract nouns derived from adjectives, such as págocth = joy, from page = glad, end in -b in the nom. and acc. sing. and form a distinct class, sometimes called the *i*-declension.

Example: ло́шадь = horse.

	Singular.	Plural.
N.	ло́шадь	ло́шади
G.	ло́шади	лошадей
D.	ло́шади	лошадя́мъ
A.	ло́шадь	лошадей
I.	<b>л</b> о́шадью	лошадьми́
L.	ло́шади	лошадихъ

#### OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. The acc. pl. of names of animate things is the same as the gen. pl.; e.g. nom. pl. лошади = horses, gen. and acc. pl. лошадей; nom. pl. люди = people, men and women (which is used as the plural of челове́къ, cf. p. 49; the singular of люди із людь, a hard masculine noun, and means a people), gen. and acc. pl. людей, but кость = bone, gen. pl. костей, acc. pl. кости. The gen. pl.-ей of this declension is that borrowed by soft masc. and neuter nouns, cf. pp. 46, 52.
- 2. The regular inst. pl. of this declension, -ьми, has become replaced by that in -ями, borrowed from the soft fem. declension, in all words except the following: лошадь = horse, inst. pl. лошадьми, люди = people—людьми; кость = bone—костьми; дверь = door—дверьми; двти = children—двтьми; but радость = joy—радостими; скорость = speed—скоростими; страсть = passion—страстими; сани (pl. only) = sledge—саними; часть = part—частими.

- 3. Those nouns which end in -чь, -щь, -жь, and -шь, and це́рковь = church (cf. the following paragraph) have the dat. pl. in -амь, the inst. pl. in -ами, and the loc. pl. in -амь; е. g. ночь = night—ночамь, ночамь, ночамь; вещь = thing—вещамь, вещамы, вещамы, церквамь.
- 4. The five nouns це́рковь = church, любо́вь = love, рожь = rye, ложь = lie, and вошь = louse lose the o in all the oblique cases except in the inst. sing. Тhus, gen. sing. це́ркви, любьй, ржи, &c., but inst. sing. це́рковью, любо́вью. When, however, Любо́вь is used as a Christian name, = Love, then it retains the o; gen. sing. Любо́ви, &c.
- 5. There is only one masc. noun in this declension: путь = way, (= road and means); it is declined exactly like ло́шадь except that the inst. sing. is путёмъ and the inst. pl. путя́ми.
- 6. The noun cáжень = seven feet (measure) has gen. dat. sing. саженн and gen. pl. сажень.
- 7. The two nouns math = mother, and gove = daughter are declined as follows:

lingular.	Plural.
мать	матери
матерп	матере́й
матери	матерямъ
мать	матерей
ма́терью	матеря́ми
матери	матеря́хъ
	ма́терп ма́терп мать ма́терь:o

The inst. pl. матерьми, дочерьми are also used. In the colloquial language the use of мать and дочь is often replaced by that of the diminutives матушка (ог мамаша) and дочка, which follow the ordinary fem. declension.

8. It is important to remember that the very common plurals моди = people and дъти = children, are declined like the plural of лошаль.

# § 43. Neuter Nouns having the nom. sing. in -n.

A few neuter nouns end in -n in the nom. and acc. sing. and form a distinct class, sometimes called the n-declension.

Example: Bpéma = time.

### NEUTER NOUNS

	Singular.	Plural.
N.	время	времена
G.	времени	времёнъ
D.	времени	временамъ
A.	вре́мя	времена
I.	временемъ	временами
L.	времени	временахъ
A. I.	вре́мя вре́менемъ	времена́ времена́мп

Other common words in this declension are: имя = (Christian) name, племя = tribe, пламя = flame, бремя = burden, and свмя = seed (which has an irregular gen. pl. свмянь), знамя = standard, стремя = stirrup (gen. pl. стремянь).

The word gurá = child, which is neuter, is declined in the singular as follows:

N. дитя́

G. дитяти

D. дитя́ти

А. дитя

I. дитя́тей

L. дитя́ти

The plural girn goes like лошади q.v.; in the colloquial language the alternative word for *child*, ребёнокь (cf. p. 53), is more commonly used for the singular, *child*, and girn more commonly for the plural, *children*.

The oblique cases of дити are very seldom used except in literature, and the plural of ребёнокь, ребита, is specially used in the meaning comrades, boys, e. g. among soldiers, though also commonly used for children by the peasants.

# § 44. Note on the Terminations of Substantives.

All nouns ending in -b, -n are masculine.

", ", -o, -e are neuter.

Nouns ,, ,, -b are either masculine or feminine, e.g. дарь = tsar, masc., but ócehb = autumn, fem.

Most nouns ending in -a, -я are feminine, but a few are masculine and neuter, e.g. слуга́ = (man-)servant, судья́ = judge, masc., имя = (Christian) name, neut.

Common terminations denoting male and female agents are: masc. -икъ, -ель, -ець, -инъ, -унъ; fem. -ица, -иха, -ка, -унья, and others, e.g.:

#### Masculine.

прика́щикь salesman
учени́кь pupil
учи́тель teacher
пъ́ве́ць singer
саме́ць male (sc. beast)
купе́ць merchant
генера́ль general
господи́нь Mr., gentleman
граждани́нь citizen
врунь liar
госуда́рь sir, sovereign

баринь sir, master

### Feminine.

прикащица
ученица
ученица
пъвица
самка female (sc. beast)
купчиха (his wife)
генеральна (his wife)
госпожа Mrs., lady
гражданка (fem.)
врунья
государына lady, sovereign
барына lady, mistress

Notice that Monogémb = clever chap, brave fellow (a very common word of praise), уминца = clever-boots, другь = friend, and человыкь = person, can be used of either males or females. The feminine of врать = doctor is женицина врать = woman doctor.

Сf. also англичанка = Englishwoman (for masc. v. р. 48), німець, німка = German (рl. німцы, fem. німкн). Similarly американець = American, венгерець = Hungarian, голландець = Dutchman, испанець = Spaniard, италіянець = Italian, норвежець = Nowegian, швейцарець = Swiss, ирландець = Irishman, and шотландець = Scot, all turn -ець into -ка for the fem. and -цы, -ки for the pl., gen. pl. = -цевь, -окь; португалець makes португалька, -лыцы = Portuguese; австріець, австрійка, -ійцы = Austrian; бельгіець, -ійка, -ійцы = Belgian; шведь, шведка, шведы = Swede; грекь, гречанка, греки = Greek; сербь, сербійнка, сербы = Servian; турокь, турчанка, турки = Turk; полякь, полька, поляки = Pole; чехь, чешка, чеки = Bohemian, and французь, француженка, французы = French.

# § 45. Diminutive Endings.

The extensive use of diminutives is one of the first things that strikes the beginner. Some words are only used in their diminutive forms, e.g. mándunks = boy, from which a further diminutive has had to be formed, viz. mandunka = little boy. In many cases the diminutives are really meant to imply smallness, but very frequently they are used merely as a means of expressing affection, politeness, or good humour, and in such they are difficult, if not

impossible to translate in English. E.g. the conductor in a train always asks to see your билетики = little tickets; this does not imply that the tickets are small, but merely that the conductor would not refuse a drink.

The commonest diminutive endings are:

#### Masculine.

```
e. g. мáльчикъ = bou
-икъ.
            мальчи́шка = little boy
-ишка,
            внучекъ
                       = grandson
-екъ,
            звѣрёкъ
                        = animal
-ёкъ,
            дружокъ
                        = friend
-окъ.
                        = brother
-епъ
            братецъ
                        = kitten (cf. § 41, obs. 4)
            котёнокъ
-ёнокъ,
            Петровичь = son of Peter 1
-HIIB.
                Feminine.
-ĸa,
            пуввочка.
                        = girl (till puberty)
            Петровна
                        = daughter of Peter 1
-Ha.
            частица
                        = part
-ца,
                  Neuter.
            облачко:
                        = cloud
-ItO.
            письмено
                        = lelter
-no.
            око́ньце
-ne.
                        = window
```

As an example of the varieties of diminutives that can be formed from one word, take the word phase *virgin* (only used in such expressions as the 'Maid of Orleans', or crapas phase an old maid):

```
дівніца = spinster.
```

дъвка = girl (sc. common girl, wench, a very derogatory term).

дввочка = girl (up to 12).

двинка = girl (from 12 till marriage, or till about 30).

дъвчонка = little girl.

<sup>1</sup> Literally = Peter's little one; Петро́въ (masc.) and Петро́ва (fem.) are possessive adjectives formed from the word Пётръ = Peter, and to the stem Петроъ are added лиъ for the son and на for the daughter. All other patronymics are formed analogously. Patronymics are often contracted in rapid conversation, e.g. Ива́нычъ for Ива́новичъ, &с.; Ма́рія Ива́новиа sounds like Марія́нна.

The following terminations imply good humour or affection specifically:

-ушка, -юшка, -ышко, -енька, -енка.

The following terminations are considered to imply depreciation:

-ншка, -ншко, -ёнка, -онка and sometimes -ушка.

The following are called augmentatives, as they usually imply largeness:

-ина, -ище, -ища.

### THE DECLENSION OF THE PRONOUNS

§ 46. The inflexions of these are for the most part different from those of the substantives, though there are a few points of similarity, e.g. the dat. pl. always ends in -mb and the inst. pl. always in -mi.

#### Personal Pronouns.

 $\mathbf{H}=\mathbf{I}$ , ты =thou, онъ =he, она =she, оно =it, мы =we, вы =you, она, онь =they.

		Si	ngular.	
N.	я	ты	онъ (neut. оно́)	oná
G.	меня́	тебя	eró	eit
D.	жнъ	тебѣ	ему́	eñ
A.	меня́	тебя́	eró	eë
I.	пони	тобой	MMP	eii
L.	мпъ	тебѣ	(п)ёмъ	(п)ей

мпѣ		тебѣ	(п)ёмъ	(п)ей
			Plural.	
N.	MPL		вы они (п	asc. and neut.), онѣ (fem.)
G.	насъ		васъ	ихъ
D.	намъ		вамъ	нмъ
A.	нась		вась	ихъ
I.	нами		вами	ими
L.	насъ		васъ	(н)ихъ
		_		

### OBSERVATIONS.

1. There is a reflexive personal pronoun, cebú, which has no nominative, and is declined alike in the sing. and pl.:

G. себя́

D. себѣ

А. себя

I. cocóñ

L. себъ

i. e. just like тебя́.

The peculiarity of its use is that it can be applied to any of the three persons; e.g. a πιοδιπό ceóπ = I lore myself, τιι πόσαιμε ceóπ = thou lovest thyself; οπό οτ οπά πιόσαιτε ceóπ = he or she loves himor herself. It also occurs in a few very common idioms; e.g. τακε ceóπ = fairly, averagely (lit. = thus to itself); camó ceóπ pasymétete = that is understood (lit. = itself understands itself by itself); οπά χοροιπά ceón = she is a good-looking woman (lit. she [is] nice with herself); οπό живёть ceóπ ταμό... = he goes on living there (here the ceóπ implies that he goes on living in his own way, paying little attention to others, but not necessarily that he is a recluse; онь сломаль сеоπ τόποβу = he has cracked his head, the Russian equivalent for he has broken his neck.

When joined to an ordinary transitive verb (making it reflexive) себя is contracted to -ся ог -сь; е. g. разумбется = of course (lit. = it understands itself), это не дълается = that is not done; нахожу́сь = I find myself. But the addition of the reflexive pronoun by no means always makes the word passive; Russian has many reflexive verbs which are middle in meaning, е. g. бояться = to fear, боюсь = I fear; нравится = it pleases, мнь нравится = it pleases me, I like. Cf. §§ 100, 110.

- 2. The nominatives ohe, ohe, ohe, ohe did not belong originally to ere, &c., and are not really personal pronouns at all, but demonstrative pronouns, corresponding somewhat to the German jener, jene, jenes, which in Russian, no longer used regularly as demonstrative pronouns, have been borrowed to supply the place of the lost nominatives of ere, &c.
- 3. It is important to notice that the acc. sing. of ohb and of oho is always ero, i.e. = the gen. sing., even though the thing to which it refers be inanimate. Similarly the acc. pl. of ohe and of ohe is always uxb.
  - 4. The initial и- in имъ, ихъ, and ими is always pronounced yi-.
- 5. The gen. sing. of one is usually pronounced  $y_i y \delta$ , i. e. like the acc. sing. ee, though it is always written en.

- 6. The genitives of the personal pronoun eró, en, and man ordinarily mean his, her, and their, since Russian has no possessive pronoun of the third person, e.g. the only way of saying his futher in Russian is eró orens (or orens eró).
- 7. The oblique cases of ohe, oha, and oha, when directly governed by a preposition, are always prefixed by the letter H; this is ostensibly done for the sake of euphony, but the real reason is that certain prepositions originally ended in H, and this letter was borrowed by other prepositions which did not end in it. Subsequently when the prepositions lost their final H, it stuck to the pronoun where it has remained. As the loc case in Russian is never used without a preposition of some sort, the loc of this pronoun is always prefixed by H, placed in brackets in the paradigm for this reason. When a preposition precedes ero, en, or MXL in their meaning of his, her, or their, and therefore does not directly govern the pronoun, the H is omitted.

Examples: СЪ НИМЪ = with him, ОТЪ НИХЪ = from them, О НЁМЪ = about him, but ОТЪ его ОТПА = from his father, О его брать = about his brother. &c.

- 8. For the inst. sing. mhon, tobon, en, and cobon the full forms mhon, tobon, én, and cobon are often used.
- 9. In correspondence all cases of the pronoun be are always spelt with an initial capital for politeness.
- 10. The particle же (or -жь) is often affixed to the personal pronouns, and expresses identity or gives emphasis to the pronoun; e.g. я твой брать, я же и твой другь = I am thy brother, I too am thy friend; кто вамь даль это? онь—а это? онь же = who gave you this? he [did]—and this? he [did] too. In book catalogues when the name of the author has once been printed, eró же printed in front of the titles of his various works means by the same author.

же can also mean but where a slight emphasis is laid on the pronoun; e.g. вы же сказа́ли это! = but it was you [who] said this!

11. The particle to affixed to the personal pronouns also expresses identity or gives emphasis.

# § 47. Possessive Pronouns.

The declension of these resembles that of OHB, MOH, MOH, MOH; MOH ; MOH = my, mine; TBOH, TBOH, TBOH; TBOH = thy, thine; CBOH, CBOH, CBOH;

свой  $= one^*s$  own; нашь, нашь, наше; наши = our, ours; вашь, вашь = your, yours.

	S	ingular.		Plural.
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc., Fem., Neut.
N.	мой	ком	моё	мой
G.	moeró	моси	Moeró	мойхъ
D.	моему	мое́й	моему́	моймъ
A.	мой or моего́	мою́	моё	мой or мойхъ
I.	моймъ	мое́й	моймъ	мойми
L.	моёмъ	мое́й	моёмъ	мойхъ
	S	lingular.		Plural.
N	нашъ	наша	наше	на́ши
G.	нашего	на́шей	нашего	нашихъ
D.	нашему	на́шей	нашему	нашимь
A.	= N. or G.	нашу	на́ше	= N. or G.
I.	нашимъ	нашей	нашимъ.	нашими
L.	нашемъ	нашей	нашемъ	нашихъ

### OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. Then and choir are declined exactly like mon, and haurb exactly like haurb.
- 2. Choň can only be used when it refers to the subject of the sentence, but it can be used of any of the three persons; e.g. π ποσπό σεια οτιά can only mean I love my father (though it is also possible to say π ποσπό μοστό οτιά), whereas π ποσπό ετό οτιά = I love his father. Again, ομα πόσμτα εδού ετατρή = he loves his (oun) sister, whereas ομα πόσμτα ετό ετατρή = he loves his (i.e. some one else's) sister.
- 3. The acc. sing. of the masc. and acc. pl. of all three genders of these pronouns follow the rule of the masculine substantives; i. e. when the object referred to is animate, the acc. = the gen., when inanimate it is the same as the nom.
- 4. For the inst. sing. мое́й, твое́й, свое́й, на́шей, and ва́шей, the full forms мое́ю, твое́ю, свое́ю, на́шею, and ва́шею are also used.
- 5. It is important to notice that the nom. pl. мой (also твой and свой) is a disyllable, pronounced ma-yi; the nom. sing. masc. мой (as also твой and свой), on the other hand, is a diphthong, the -й being the original nom. sing. of the personal pronoun of the 3rd person, which in that declension has been replaced by онь, &c.

- 6. In correspondence all cases of the pronoun Bahrs are spelt with an initial capital for politeness.
- 7. The particle me (or-md) affixed to the possessive pronouns expresses identity of ownership, e.g. uem stote mome? Mome and whose is this field? more? Moe me = whose is this house? mine—and whose is this field? mine also.
  - 8. The particle to emphasizes the pronouns; e.g.;

    mon-to? = da you mean mine?

## § 48. Demonstrative Pronouns.

The declension of these is similar for the most part to that of the possessive pronouns, though differing from it in some important particulars.

тоть, та, то; Th = that (yonder). Singular. Plural. Masc. Fem. Neut. Masc., Fem., Neut. N. TOTE TO тħ та G. TOTÓ той τοτό TEXT TEME D. тому той TOMÝ = N. or G.Α. = N. or G. TO TV TÉMH I. тѣмъ той TEME L. тěхъ томъ той томъ

этоть, эта, это; этп = this or that (here). Plural. Singular. Nent. Masc., Fem., Neut. Masc. Fem. N. TOTE э́та оте итѐ G. этого э́той этого **ATHYL** этой амите D. YMOTÈ **YMOTE** = N. or G. A .-= N. or G. э́тν óто I. этими **АМИТ**е э́той этимъ L. э́той STOW'S **STHX** этомъ

Singular. Plural. Masc. Fem. Neut. Masc., Fem., Neut. N. ceñ ciя́ cié сій G. ceró сей ceró сихъ D. СИМЪ Cemv ceñ сему Α. = N. or G. ciró cié = N. or G.

ceй, ciá, cié (or cë); ciú=this (here).

 I.
 симъ
 сей
 симъ
 суми

 L.
 сёмъ
 сей
 сёмъ
 сихъ

#### OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. For the inst. sing. той, этой, and ceй the full forms тою, этою, and ceю are also used.
- 2. Of these three pronouns этоть is the oftenest, cen the most seldom used. Этоть is frequently used where we should say that in English, e.g. in very common phrases such as:

Что это тако́е? = what's that (lit. = what this such)?

Кто это такой? = who's that (lit. = who this such)?

Это было давно = that was long ago.

Это очень хорошо = that's very nice.

Это нашъ домъ = that is our house.

Śro can also mean these or those when it is the subject of a sentence and very frequently has this meaning, e.g.:

это мой дъти = these or those [are] my children.

The neuter pronoun to is often used as an enclitic affixed to a noun or another pronoun irrespective of gender or number to emphasize or to differentiate, and it sometimes seems to take the place of the definite article.

E. g. bd tomb-to i deno or to-to i ects (both =) that's just the point; home-to mon = the house is mine.

(The first of these is not to be confused with the similar idiom given below.)

In the colloquial language, especially that of the peasants, this pronoun can be affixed to any noun (but only in the nom.) and made to agree with it, and thus acquire the value of a definite article.

- 3. Тоть is used specially frequently in argument, e. g. то, что... = that which...; it is also used as a definite article before a relative clause, e.g. тоть мальчикь, которому я даль деньги = the boy to whom I gave the money. In conversation, however, even that (yonder) is frequently rendered by этоть with the addition of тамь = there, e. g. этоть домь тамь—нашь = that house over there is ours.
- 4. Тоть is especially common compounded with prepositions, e.g. потомъ = then (lit. = upon that), затъмъ = then (lit. = behind that), потому = therefore (lit. = according to that), кромъ того =

besides (lit. = outside that), so to = on the other hand (lit. = for that).

- 5. Tork followed by From is often used for the former and the latter.
- It is important to notice the very common idiom το μ μέπο (lit. = and that's the thing), which means incessantly.
- 7. Ceй is seldom used except in a few phrases in which it is extremely common, e. g. ceйчась = immediately (lit. = this instant, though the noun чась has changed its meaning and in modern Russian = hour); сію минуту = this minute, this instant; сего́дня = to-day (lit. = of this day); до сихь порь = till now (lit. = till these times); и то и сё = both the one and the other; при сёмь = 'enclosed' (lit. = in the presence of this).
- 8. The pronouns такой, э́такой, and таковой = such are declined like adjectives, q.v.
- 9. The pronoun оный = that (yonder), which supplied the forms of the personal pronoun онь, &c., is now obsolete and only common in the phrase во время оно = in days of yore (lit. = into that time).
- 10. Тогь followed by the enclitic же = the same and is very common, e.g. вь томь же домь = in the same house, того же автора (gen.) = by the same author, сь тымь же мальчикомь = with the same boy; the words одынь и = one and are often added, e.g. вь одномь и томь же городь = in one and the same town, вь одно и то же времи = at one and the same time. The phrase тоже, always written as one word, = also, e.g. мы тоже = we also. Этоть же = this same and такой же = of the same kind, are also very common.

# § 49. Relative and Interrogative Pronouns.

KTO = who (masc. and fem.); TTO = what.

N.	кто		OTP
G.	roró		чего
D.	кому́		чему́
A.	кого		OTP
I.	квиъ		TMAP
L.	комъ		TÖMB

чей, чья, чьё; чьи = whose.

Russian has a special pronoun for whose which is declined throughout.

	Si	ngular.			Plural.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Mas	c., Fem., Neut.	,
N.	чей	RAP	бар		чыи	
G.	чьего́	чьей	чьего		TLUXE	
D.	чьему	чьей	 чьему́		<b>чыны</b>	
A.	= N. or G.	OLLP	öap		= N. or G.	
I.	чьимъ	чьей	чыны		имѝағ	
L.	<b>ч</b> ьёмъ	чьей	чьёмъ		Типар	
	f		 	C . 7		

кото́рый = which, какой and каковой = of what sort, are declined like adjectives, q. v.; кото́рый supplies the plural of кто, что.

### OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. The pronoun чей is of course most frequently used in the nominative, e.g. чей этоть домь? = whose house is this? But the other cases are not uncommon, e.g. чью жену́ онь лю́бить? = whose wife does he love?
- 2. Yro is used to introduce a subordinate clause in all those cases where in English we use the demonstrative pronoun that, i. e. after all verbs of asserting, denying, believing, thinking, perceiving, feeling, &c., e. g. я говорю, что онъ дуракъ = I say that he [is] a fool. It is also used in the expressions for why and because, e.g. otheró?=why? (= from what), ottoró uto = because (lit. = from that what), почему? = why? (lit. = according to what), потому The state of the s notice the difference in meaning of these two expressions: orveró = from what cause, e. g. отчего сегодня такъ темно? = why is it so dark to-day? отчего вы такъ бледны? = why are you so pale? but почему = on what ground, e.g. почему вы говорите это? = why do you say this? почему онь желаеть вильть меня? = why does he wish to see me? Of course there are many questions in which either of the two words could be used indifferently, and the answer to both is usually introduced by noromy aro, which is far commoner than оттого что. There is yet another expression for why, viz. зачыть? which means literally behind what? and thus comes to mean truing to get what? or with what object? e.g. зачыть вы принций? = why

(sc. with what object) have you come? The answer to such a question is introduced by затѣмъ, чтобы (or more often merely by чтобы) = in order that (lit. behind that what), which is followed by the past tense or the infinitive; the particle -бы аffixed to что (and sometimes written чтобъ) is really part of the verb быть = to be, q. v. Чтобы means in order that, and is also used to introduce wishes, when it is always followed by the past tense, e.g. чтобы это было такъ! = that it were so! Both что as a conjunction and чтобы are enclitics and have no accent.

3. Kto is often used by itself to express whoever, e. g. kto ymbeth по-норвежски, тоть и понимаеть по-датски = whoever knows Norwegian can also understand (lit. that one also understands) Danish. кто говорить это, врёть = whoever says this, lies. Another very common way of expressing whoever and whatever is to add бы ни to mto and to, which are then always followed by the past tense: it is important to notice that the particle Hu does not imply negation; e.g. кто бы мнѣ ни говори́ль это, я ему́ не повѣрю = whoever should tell me this. I shall not believe him; что бы вы ни двлали. я не буду вась слушать = whatever you do, I shall not listen to you; and the following very common idioms may be mentioned: кто бы то ни было = whoever it be, что бы то ни было = whatever it be, and во что бы то ни стало = cost what it may (lit. = into whatever it should become). This use of 6M must be carefully distinguished from that mentioned in the preceding paragraph. Whoever not can only be translated by кто не..., е.g. кто не видать Москвы, не знаеть Россін = whoever has not seen Moscow, does not know Russia. Other common ways of expressing whoever and whatever are paraphrases such as every one who, all that, &c.

4. Кто..., кто... is very commonly used to express some... others..., е. g. вск укхали, кто на лошадахъ, кто по железной дороге = they have all left, some by carriage (lit. = on horses), some by railway.

 well, what about it? Yet another что-жъ двлать? = what's to be done, que voulez vous?

OTHERO ME? and HOMENY ME? are also very common in argument, meaning but why then? OTHERO ME! is also used as an exclamation, meaning both far from it, not at all, and certainly, by all means.

6. Что and что-жъ is also very frequently used to introduce a question, and is in fact almost the most usual way of introducing an interrogative sentence; in this use it never has any emphasis on it; е.g. что вы повдете въ этомъ году́ заграни́ну? = shall you go abroad this year?

### § 50.

# Definitive Pronouns.

## самъ, сама́, само́; сами = self.

		Singular.		Plural.
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc., Fem., Neut.
N.	самъ	сама́	само	сами
G.	самого	самой	самого	самихъ
D.	самому	самой	самому	самимъ
A.	= N. or $G$ .	самоё	само	= N. or G.
I.	самимъ	• самой	самимъ	самими
L.	само́мъ	само́й	самомъ	самихъ

# весь, вся, всё; вс= all, the whole.

	S	Singular.		Plural.
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	Masc., Fem., Neut.
N.	весь	вся	всё	всѣ
G.	Bceró	всей	BCCTÓ	всьхъ
D.	всему	всей	всему	встив
A.	= N. or G.	всю	всё	= N. or G.
ı.	встив	всей	всьмъ	вевми
L.	всёмъ	всей	всёмъ	всѣхъ

#### OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. Всикій and каждый = every, each, иной = some, and другой = other, are declined like adjectives, q. v. For одинъ = only, alone (lit. = one) cf. Numerals, § 60.
- 2. One another is expressed in Russian by the phrase другь друга, which is the nom. and acc. sing. of the word другь, which originally meant second or other, but in modern Russian has acquired the meaning of friend; e.g. они очень любять другь друга = they love

one another very much, мы поший другь съ другомъ = we went one with the other.

- 3. Camb can be used either before or after the noun it qualifies, e.g.  $\pi$  camb = I myself (masc.),  $\pi$  camá = I myself (fem.), camb happe = the tsar himself,  $\pi$  buyéht camoró hapá = I saw the tsar himself, ohb mh's camomý chajánd foo = he told this to me myself (sc. not through anybody else), mh camh = we ourselves, ohd camh or camb ohd = he himself, camó cobón = hy or of itself,  $\pi$  camb cebá kyhúlb śto = I bought this for myself myself, ohá camá cebá kyhúlb śto = she bought this for herself herself.
- 4. It is not difficult to distinguish the use of came from that of the reflexive pronoun cedá, but came is very easily confused with the longer form of the same word camenathe the very, which is declined like an adjective, e.g. toth we camena teachers the very same man, but came readers the man himself; be camene here in the very centre of the town, but be cament réport in the town itself. Camen is also used in the formation of the superlative degree in the comparison of adjectives, q. v.
- 5. The use of Becs does not present any difficulties, e.g. Bocs róродъ = the whole town, весь день (acc.) = all day long, всю ночь (acc.) = all night long, она вся въ чёрномъ = she [is] all in black. It is very important to notice a few very common idioms in which the word occurs: conchimb = quite (lit. = with all), Bce parhó = it's all the same (lit. = all even), всего́ хоро́шаго, всего́ лу́чшаго! = (I wish you) everything good, everything of the best! (gen. after verb of wishing), beerô = altogether, in all, e.g. beerô пять м'еть багажа = five pieces of luggage in all (lit. = of all), Beë = continually (this is really an adverbial use of the neuter), e.g. она всё плакала = she kept on crying all the time, oht beë kpunitt = he keeps on shouting, he is always shouting, я всё шишу́=I am always writing, онъ всё хо́дить въ театръ = he is always going to the theatre. It is very important to be sure of pronouncing Bees with a soft cand closed e, as there is another word BLCE having the open e-sound and hard ending, meaning weight.

# § 51. Indefinite Pronouns.

никто = no one, ничто = nothing.

These are declined exactly like are and are, but it is to be observed that the nom. and acc. Hauré is very rarely used, the gen.

being almost always substituted for them, e.g. что съ вами? ничего́! = what is the matter with you? nothing! это ничего́! = no matter! (lit. = this [is] nothing). When a verb follows either of these pronouns, it must always be negative, since in Russian two negatives do not make an affirmative, but are on the other hand necessary to complete the negation, e.g. никто́ не пришёть = no one has come, я никому́ не сказа́ть = I have told no one, онь мнв ничего́ не́ дать = he has given me nothing.

The following very common idioms may be noticed: никого́ не видать = there is no one to be seen, ничего́ не видать = there is nothing to be seen, никого́ от ничего́ не слыхать = there is no one or

nothing to be heard.

There is a very idiomatic adverbial use of the word hunder in which it means tolerably, fairly well, e.g. kake by cecá nýbetbyere? Hunder != how do you feel [yourself]? fairly well! This can also be used with a verb, e.g. ohe uppaets hunder = he plays fairly well, but of course with the double negative the meaning would be negative, e.g. ohe hunder he uppaets = he is not playing anything.

When никто and ничто are used with a preposition, the latter is inserted between the ни- and the pronoun, e.g. ни съ къмъ = with no one, ни о чёмъ = about nothing, ни за что = not for anything, ни съ чъмъ = without accomplishing one's object (lit. = with nothing); ни въ чёмъ не бывало is an idiom meaning not in the least, and какъ будто ни въ чёмъ не бывало = quite unruffled, as if nothing had happened.

никакой = of no kind

is declined like an adjective, q.v.

нéкого = there is no one to . . . нéчего = there is nothing to . . .

Hé- can be prefixed to any case of kto and что except the nom, and the words thus formed are written as one word, except when used with a preposition, which, just as in the case of никто, is inserted between the he- and the pronoun. It is always followed by the inf. It is important to remember that the accent is always on the hé-, while in никто it is always on the last syllable; e. g. нечего делать от делать нечего! = there is nothing to be done! (lit. = to do; a very common idiom), говорить нечего! = there is nothing more to be said, there's no denying it, некому сказать = there is no one

to tell, не съ къмъ говорить = there is no one to talk to (lit. = with), не о чёмъ писать = there is nothing to write about, and the common idioms: не за что = il n'y pas de quoi (our don't mention it), не за чъмъ = there is no object, there is no point.

нъкто = some one, нъчто = something.

It is important not to confuse these two words with hékoro and hévero. The beginner is all the more likely to confuse them because ž is pronounced exactly like e and in both the accent is on the same syllable. But as a matter of fact the two words are of very rare occurrence except in the nom., much the commoner expressions for some one and something being those mentioned lower; e.g. π смышаль нечто о нешь = I have heard something about him, онь мнё нёчто сказаль = he told me something.

нъ́который = a certain, some, is declined like an adjective, q. v.

кто-то = some one, что-то = something, кто-нибудь = some one or other, any one, что-нибудь = something or other, anything (lit. = who not be, who be it not), кто-либо = any one, что-либо = anything.

These are all declined exactly like kTO and TO. The difference in meaning between кто-то and кто-нибудь is slight but very important. Kró-to is the more definite of the two and can never mean any one; кто-нибудь is less definite and means some one or any one. The difference is best illustrated by examples: któ-to идёть = some one is coming, кто-то пришёть = some one has come, кто-то сказать мнь = some one told me, кто-то тамь = [there is] some one there, кто-то позвонить = some one has rung, я даль кому-то книгу, но не помню кому = I gave the book to some one, but I don't remember to whom, она сказала мив что-то о нёмь = she told me something about him (sc. but I don't want to tell you what), A BÉRY HTÓ-TO TAMB = I see something there, онъ написать что-то на бумажкв = he wrote something on the piece of paper, pyons of ubmb-to = a rouble with something (i.e. over a rouble, I forget how much), говящина съ чёмъ-то = beef with something (i.e. something with it, I forget what), but дома-ли кто-нибудь? or кто-нибудь дома? = is any one at home? спросите кого-нибудь! = ask some one! я спрошу у кого-нибудь совыта = I shall ask advice from some one, я куплю вамъ что-нибудь = I shall buy you something or other (sc. I don't know myself exactly what), я кунлю вамъ что-то = I shall buy you something (sc. I know what, but I am not going to

tell you), надо сдалать что-нибудь = something must be done (sc. l don't know what), надыньте что-нибудь теплые = put something warm on (sc. it doesn't matter what), скушайте что-нибудь ещё = eat something more, скажите мнь что-нибудь о себы = tell me something about yourself, сыграйте намь что-нибудь! = do play us something!

Кто-либо and что-либо are still more indefinite, e. g. спросите котолибо, а онъ скажеть вамъ... = ask any one you like, and he will tell you..., дайте кому-либо = give [it] to any one you like.

Кой-кто = a few, кое-что = a little. These are also declined exactly like кто and что; they imply indefiniteness of number or quantity, e.g. я спращивать кой-кого = I have been asking one or two people, онь сказаль мнь кое-что о сео = he told me a few things about himself, я узналь кое-что о ... = I have found out a thing or two about ..., я кой съ къмъ говорить объ этомъ = I have been talking to one or two people about this.

Кой-какой =  $\alpha$  few and любой =  $\alpha ny$  you like are declined like adjectives, q.v.

### DECLENSION OF THE ADJECTIVES

§ 52. The adjective in Russian has two forms, the shorter and the longer; the shorter is called the predicative, the longer the attributive.

The predicative form of the adjective is used almost solely when the adjective is the predicate of a sentence; in form it is exactly like a noun, and except in popular poetry it occurs only in the nominative, e.g. gome xopóme = the house [is] nice (cf. German: das Haus ist schön), moń cectpá больна́ = my sister [is] ill, мо́ре глубоко́ = the sea [is] deep, они жа́вы = they [are] alive, я о́чень радь = I[am] very glad, онь сча́стянь = he [is] happy, она́ здоро́ва = she [is] well, я винова́ть = I[am] to blame, я винова́та = I[am] to blame (if a woman is speaking). But whenever an adjective qualifies a noun, the longer or attributive form must be used; this is an amalgamation of the shorter form with the pronominal endings. There is a hard and a soft declension, corresponding to the hard and soft nouns.

§ 53.

### Hard Declension.

## Example: бѣлый, бѣлая, бѣлое = white.

		Singular.		
	Masc.	Fem.		Neut.
N.	бѣ́лый	балая		бълое
G.	бѣлаго	бѣ́лой		бѣлаго
D.	бѣ́лому	бѣлой		<b>б</b> ѣлом <b>у</b>
A.	= N. or G.	бѣлую		бѣлое
I.	бълымъ	бѣлой		бълымъ
L.	амок <del>а</del> б	бѣлой		бъломъ
		Plural.		
	Masc.	Fem.		Neut.
N.	бъ́лые		бѣлып	
G.		бѣлыхъ		
D.		бъ́лымъ		
A.		= N. or G.		
I.		бѣ́лыми		
L.		бѣ́лыхъ		

### Hard Declension when the ending is accented.

Example: молодо́й, молода́я, молодо́е = young.

	Singular.	
Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N. молодой	молодая	молодо́е
G. молодо́го	молодой	молодо́го

after which it is declined exactly like былый, except that the accent is always on the ending, and on the first syllable of the ending when it is disyllabic.

#### OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. The rule with regard to the acc. sing. masc. and acc. pl. of the adjective is the same as that which governs the acc. sing. and pl. of masc. and the acc. pl. of fem. nouns, i. e. for an animate object it is always the same as the genitive and for an inanimate object the same as the nominative.
- 2. There is an alternative longer form of three syllables for every fem. inst. sing., e. g. oʻznom or oʻznom.

3. The nominative singular and plural of the attributive form of the adjective arose through the affixing of the lost pronominal nominatives (which are given in scientific works as js ja je, pronounced i ya ye, whose place in the pronominal declension has been taken by ohe ohá ohó) to nominatives of the predicative form, thus σέπικ = σέπι + κ (js), σέπια = σέπι + κ (ja), σέπια = σέπια + κ (ja), σέπια = σέπια + κ (ja). Τhe form of the nom. sing. masc. is really of Old Bulgarian origin and has forced its way not only into Russian orthography but also into the living language, thanks to the influence of the Old Bulgarian ecclesiastical tradition in the Russian language; the real Russian form of the nom. sing. is -όπ, which is still retained in adjectives which are accented on the ending, e.g. молодой = young.

The other cases were formed analogously, though the process is clearer in some than in others, e.g. былаго = была + его, былую = былу + ю (= ju yu, an old acc. of the pronominal declension), былому = былу + ему; in the other cases more drastic contraction has occurred.

- 4. Several very common adjectives (including names) are accented on the ending and declined like молодой, е. g. передовой = foremost, золотой = golden, больной = ill, сёдой = gray-hairèd, больной = big, Толстой = Tolstói (while the adjective толстый = thick, fat, is declined like белый). It may be mentioned that almost all Russian surnames are adjectives and must be declined adjectivally, е. g. сочинены Толсто́го = the works of Tolstói, я знать Толсто́го = I knew Tolstói, я знаю графи́ню Толсту́ю = I know Countess Tolstói, Толсты́е = the Tolstóis, у Толсты́кь = at the house of the Tolstóis. Also the ordinals: второй = second, шесто́й = sixth, седьмой = seventh, восьмой = eighth, and сороковой = fortieth.
- 5. Many adjectives ending in both -ый and -ой are used substantivally, e.g. столо́вая (sc. ко́мната) = dining-room, гости́ная = drawing-room, кладова́я = store-room, насѣко́мое = insect, живо́тное = animal, портно́й = tailor, городово́й = policeman, рядово́й = private, ломово́й = carter, больно́й = the patient, the invalid (fem. больна́я), чужо́й = stranger, мясно́е = the meat-course, joint, борза́я = a wolf-hound (lit. = swift), золото́й = a gold coin (ten roubles), and very commonly the names of streets, e. g. Не́вскій (sc. проспе́кть) = the Nevsky (in Petrograd), Морска́я (sc. у́лица) = the Morskáya (street in Petrograd).

6. The ы of the case-endings of those adjectives whose stems both end in к, г, and x, and are accented, becomes и, е. g. крыткий = strong, крынкимь, крынке, &c. (with fem. крынкая and neut. кр $\acute{\text{в}}$ пкое), м $\acute{\text{аденьк}}$ н $\acute{\text{н}}$  = little, вел $\acute{\text{н}}$ к $\acute{\text{н}}$  = great, шир $\acute{\text{o}}$ к $\acute{\text{н}}$  = broad, д $\acute{\text{н}}$ к $\acute{\text{н}}$ й = wild, стро́гій = severe, ти́хій = quiet, ўзкій = narrow, коро́ткій = short, сладкій = sweet, and many others; this category includes all adjectives derived from names of towns and countries, e.g. московскій = of Moscow, Muscovite, петроградскій = of. Petrograd, кі́евскій = of Kiev, ри́жскій = of Riga, русскій = Russian, нѣме́цкій = German, французскій = French, англійскій = English, and innumerable surnames which are often derived from names of places. e. g. Оболенскій = Obolenski, Чайковскій = Chaikovski, Достоевскій = Dostoyevski, &c. It must not be forgotten that all such surnames are declined throughout, e.g. the wife and unmarried daughter or sister of a man called Оболе́нскій із Оболе́нская, his whole family Оболенскіе, &c., and that for a foreigner to say, e.g. Madame Obolensky, is just as correct as it would be to talk about the Emperor Catherine.

But when an adjective whose stem ends in κ, r, or x is accented on the ending then it is declined like μοπομόκ, and the μ only changes to π in the masc. and neut. inst. sing. and throughout the plural, e.g. ropogeκόκ = belonging to the town (nom. pl. ropogeκίe), goporóκ = dear (inst. sing. ποροτύμε, nom. pl. ποροτίε, &c.), as also those surnames of this category which are accented on the ending, e.g. Τργδεικόκ = Trubetskoi (nom. pl. Τργδεικόε = the Trubetskois), ΗΙαχοβεκόκ = Shakhovskoi (fem. Παχοβεκάκ), &c.

In this category are included those adjectives whose stems end in ж and ш, and are accented on the ending, e.g. the very common words чужой = strange (sc. not known), чужие = strangers, у чужихъ = amongst strangers, въ чужомъ домъ = in another person's house, and большой = big, большой домъ = a large house, большой любитель искусства = a great lover of art, большое often = the grown-ups.

7. The pronouns which are declined like adjectives all belong to the hard declension: каждый = every, each, который = which, нёкоторый = a vertain, some are declined exactly like бёлый, вся́кій = of every kind, every, each, like кры́нкій, алд такой, этакой, таковой = of such a kind, такой-же = of the same kind, какой алд каковой = of what kind, другой = other, никакой = of no kind, иной = some, койкакой = a few, алд любой = any you like, like дорогой алд молодой.

These words are so very common that a few examples of their use are added: каждый день (acc.) = every day, на каждомъ шагу = at every step, каждую минуту (acc.) = every minute, каждый знаеть = every one knows, который номерь? = which number? который чась? = what time is it? (lit. = which hour?), BE KOTÓPOME HACÝ? = at what o'clock? которое число сегодня? = what date is it to-day? нъкоторые находять, что... = some consider (lit. = find) that..., нькій (от нькто) Ивановъ = a certain [man called] Ivanov, до нъкоторой степени = to a certain extent, въ некоторомъ роде = in a certain way, in some ways. всякій вздорь = all sorts of rubbish, всякая книга = each book, веякія кніги = all sorts of books, веякая веячина = odds and ends, онъ такой милый! = he is such a nice man! (N.B. Russians never say такъ милый for so nice), она такая милая! = she is such a nice woman! они таків милые! = they are such nice people! въ такую погоду = in (lit. into) such weather, въ такое время = at such a time, такимъ образомъ = in this way (lit. by such manner), which often comes to mean by doing this. no takon crement = to such an extent. такото рода = of such a sort (e.g. такото рода пьеса = a play of this sort; the nom. often follows the gen., but can also precede it). въ такомъ случав = in such a case, which comes to mean since this is so, въ такомъ родъ = in that manner, of that sort, такого-же рода, въ такомъ-же родъ = of the same kind, in the same manner, какой онъ интересный! = how interesting he is! какая интересная книга! = what an interesting book! какой красивый мальчикь! = what a beautiful boy! какая коро́шая пого́да! = what nice weather! какая плохая (скверная) погода! = what bad (nasty) weather! какимъ образомъ? = in what manner? какия новости сегодня? = what news is there to-day? накого рода? = of what sort? (e.g. это какого рода пьеса? = what sort of a play is this?), въ какомь родь = what like? какой вздорь! = what rubbish! книга, каковую вы написали = a book of the sort which you have written. другой разь = another time, другого рода = of another sort, на другой день = the next day, другимъ образомъ = in another way, другие говорять = others say, никакимь образомь = in no way, ни вы какомъ случав = in no case, in no eventuality, which comes to mean whatever happens, ни за какі́е коврі́ский = not for anything in the world (lit. not for any sort of little cakes), въ которомъ городь вы живете? ни въ какомъ = in which town do you live? not in any, кой-какія новости = some items of news, иной разъ = sometimes (Germ. manchmal), иные говорять — some say (originally иной meant one, e.g. инороть — unicorn, but it also acquired the meaning other, e.g. инородцы — people of other race than one's own), кой-какін книги — a few books of sorts, въ любой чась — at any hour (lit. into), въ любойъ городь — in any town you like to mention, въ любой день any day you like (lit. into).

There is a very idiomatic use of kakobóň as an interjection, usually expressing admiration at somebody's exploit, and it is always used in the predicative form and precedes the noun, e.g. kakóbó pýckiň óalét! = well, what do you think of the Russian ballet. isn't it fine! kakobá níbbúna! = isn't she a splendid singer! kakóbó ypokáň = what a fine harvest!

8. It is not absolutely true that all adjectives have both predicative and attributive forms. The two words радъ (fem. рада) = glad and гораздъ = capable have only the predicative form. To render their meaning when used attributively synonyms such as радостный

= joyful, способный = capable must be used.

Conversely большой = big has no predicative form, and if used predicatively the synonym великій takes its place, e.g. Россія велика = Russia is large; further, all words in -скій, e.g. ру́сскій = Russian, in -ской, e.g. городской = of the town, and adjectives denoting materials, e.g. золотой = golden, ка́менный = of stone or brick, have only the attributive form, e.g. he is Russian = онъ ру́сскій, my ring is of gold = моё кольцо́ золото́е, this bridge is of stone = э́тоть мость ка́менный. Otherwise every adjective has both forms and the shorter must be used whenever the adjective is the predicate. To form a shorter from a longer adjective it is only necessary to cut off the endings -ый, -я, and -e, then for the masc. to substitute -ь and for the fem. and neut. nothing; for the pl. cut off -e, -я; e.g. ми́лый, ми́лая, ми́лое = nice, dear, short form = миль, мила́, мило́, pl. милы́.

Examples of use: мила́я дъ́вочка = a nice little girl, дъ́вочка мила́ = the little girl [is] nice, while it is also possible to say дъ́вочка ми́лая = the little girl is a nice (sc. little girl), дъ́вочка така́я ми́лая = the little girl is such a nice (sc. little girl); онъ ми́лый = he is a nice [man], онъ тако́й ми́лый = he is such a nice [man], онъ тако миль = he is so nice. The only difficulty that occurs in forming the short form is that in some cases in the nom. masc. sing. where, after cutting off the -ый, a group of consonants

difficult to pronounce would be left, a vowel is inserted; this is usually e, which when accented becomes  $\ddot{e}$ , e.g. больной = ill— болень, умный = clever—умёнь, сильный = strong—силень ог силёнь, видный = visible—видень, спокойный = calm—спокоень; in the case of достойный = worthy, it is и—достойнь; before-кь it is о, короткій = short—коротокь; крыкій = strong—крыбнокь; лёгкій = light—лёгокь (except after ж and и, when it is e, e.g. тежкій = leavy,—тажекь). О also occurs in a few other words: элой = bad-tempered, wicked—золь; полный = full—полонь.

In many cases, however, groups of consonants, which might seem difficult to the foreigner, but are as nothing to Russians, are left without any vowel being inserted, e.g. möptbuß = dead— мöptbuß; чёрствый = hard (especially stale, of bread)—чöрствы.

9. It has been pointed out that in the language as it is spoken and written the predicative form of the adjective only occurs in the nominative; in the folk-poetry, however, which is epic in character, the other cases are often used, usually as fixed epithets for certain things, and recur with great frequency.

10. The first halves of compound adjectives which are hard end in -o, e.g. бѣлока́менный = of white stone, свѣлло-зелёный = light green, тёмно-сѣрый = dark gray, во́лжско-ка́мскій банкъ = the bank of the Volga and the Kama, ру́сско-нѣме́цкій слова́рь = a Russian-German dictionary.

Corresponding to the soft declension of nouns, there is also one of adjectives, though the number included in it is very much smaller than that belonging to the hard declension:

# § 54. Soft Declersion.

Example: си́ній, си́няя, си́нее = dark blue.

		Singi lar.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N.	синій	синяя	синее
G.	синяго	си́ней	синяго
D.	си́нему	си́ней	синему
A.	=N. or G.	ейнюю	синее
I.	синимъ	си́ней	синимъ
L.	си́немъ	си́ней	си́п:ем ь

	Masc.	Plural. Fem.		Neut.
N.	си́ніе		си́нія	
G.		ейнихъ		
D.		синимъ		
A.		= N.  or  G.		
I.		синими		
L.		си́нихъ		

It will be observed that all the soft vowels in the endings of the soft declension correspond to the hard vowels in those of the hard declension, i.e. (n) i to m, n to a, w to y, e to o.

### OBSERVATIONS.

- 1. The rule with regard to the acc. sing. masc. and acc. pl. masc. and fem. is the same as for the hard adjectives.
- 2. There is an alternative longer form of three syllables for every inst. sing. fem., e. g. си́нею and си́ней.
- 3. The predicative form of the soft adjectives is practically never used.
  - 4. There are no soft adjectives having the accent on the ending.
- 5. There are a few soft adjectives which are used substantivally, e. g. ло́вчій = huntsman, стра́пчій = attorney, го́нчая (sc. соба́ка) = sporting-dog (cf. obs. 7), ле́вшій = wood-demon, пере́дняя (sc. ко́мната) = ante-room.
- 6. The commonest adjectives declined like ся́ній are only a few in number, and are therefore given here: дре́вній = ancient, и́скренній = sincere, вну́тренній = interior, вну́шній = exterior, крайній = extreme, здр́шній = belonging to this place, from here, та́мошній = belonging to that place, from there, вчерашній = of yesterday, сего́дняшній = of to-day, за́втрашній = of to-morrow, весе́нній (от вс́шній) = vernal, лу́тній = summer, осе́нній = autumnal, за́мній = winter, послу́дній = last, сре́дній = middle, тепе́решній = of to-day (lit. of now), тогда́шній = former (lit. of then), пре́жній = former, за́дній = hinder, пере́дній = front, у́тренній = morning, вече́рній = evening, ве́рхній = upper, на́жній = lower (На́жній Но́вгородъ = Lower Newtown), ра́нній = early, по́здній = late.

7. Those soft adjectives which end in -min, -win, and -min are declined somewhat differently from cunin, and as some of them are extremely common one is given in full:

хоро́тій, хоро́тая, хоро́тее = nice, good, jolly.

		Singular.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N.	хоро́шій	хоро́шая	хоро́шее
G.	xopómaro	хоро́шей	хоро́шаго
D.	хоро́шему	хоро́шей	<b>х</b> оро́шем <b>у</b>
Α.	= N. or G.	хоро́шую	xopómee
I.	хорошимъ	хоро́шей	хоро́шимъ
L.	хоро́шемъ	хоро́шей	хоро́шемъ
	_	Plural.	_
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N.	хоро́шіе	X - X	оро́шія
G.		хоро́шихъ	•
D.		хоро́шимъ	
A.		= N. or G.	
I.		хоро́шими	
L.		хоро́шихъ	

This is apparently a mixture of the hard and soft adjectives, but it is really soft, only the m, ж, ч, and m turn subsequent я, ы, о, ю into a, п (i), е, у. The following very common words are thus declined: горя́чій = hot (lit. = burning, e. g. in the phrase горя́чей воды́ (gen.) = some hot water), свы́жій = fresh, похожій = like, меньшій = lesser, smaller, бо́льшій = greater, bigger, лу́чшій = better, all superlatives in -шій and all participles in -чій and -шій.

8. The first halves of compound adjectives which are soft end in -e, e. g. сре́дне-азіа́тскій = Central Asian, дре́вне-гре́ческій = ancient Greek.

N.B. The adjective derived from Нижній Новгородъ (cf. obs. 6) is нижегоро́дскій, e.g. нижегоро́дская губе́рнія = the Government (i.e. Province) of N. N.

9. Special attention must be called to the plurals: MHÓrie = many, and

немно́гіе = few, which are declined like хоро́шіе; the respective singulars are adverbs, мно́го = much and немно́го = little; нъ́сколько = some is similarly used except in the nom. plur. for which нъ́готорые is invariably substituted (cf. p. 75), c. g.

мно́гіе нахо́дять, что . . . = many people consider (lit. find) that . . . (it would be impossible to use the adverb here), то́лько у (о́чень) немно́гихь сво́й экипа́жи = only a (very) few have their own carriages, въ нъ́сколькихь случаяхь = in several cases. The singular of мно́гіе is also used, e.g. во мно́гомъ эта кни́га мнъ́ нра́вится = there is much in this book that pleases me (lit. this book in much).

### § 55. Declension of Possessive Adjectives.

There is a large number of these in Russian, and as the declension is different from that of the ordinary adjective, an example is given in full:

Ива́новъ = belonging to Ivan (= John).

		Singular.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N.	Ива́новъ	Ива́нова	Ива́ново
G.	. Ива́нова	Ивановой	Иванова
D.	Ива́нову	Ива́новой	Ива́нову
A.	= N. or G.	Иванову	Иваново
I.	Ивановымъ	Ивановой	Ивановымъ
L.	Ивановомъ	Ивановой	Ивановомъ
	-	Plural.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N.		Ивановы	
G.		Ива́новыхъ	
D.		Ивановымъ	
A.		= N. or G.	
I.		Ива́новыми	
L.		Ивановыхъ	

Ива́новъ may mean either belonging to Ivan, e. g. Ива́новъ домъ, or it may be the surname Iranov, which in this case is an ellipse standing for Ива́новъ сынъ = Ivan's son, or Johnson; Ива́нова may mean belonging to Ivan (fem.), e. g. Ива́нова сестра́ = Ivan's sister, or by itself, prefixed by Госножа́ (Mrs. or Miss) it means Miss or Mrs. Ivanov—Госножа Ива́нова = Mrs. Johnson; Ива́ново may mean belonging to Ivan (neut.) or it may be the name of a village, when the word село́ is understood, originally called after Ivan; Ива́новы may mean anything belonging to Ivan in the plural, or it may mean by itself the Ivanovs. Surnames and names of places formed in this way are endless, e. g. Па́вловъ = Faul s, '(Mr.) Paul-

son', Па́влова = '(Mrs. or Miss) Paulson', Петро́въ = Peter's, Peterson, Поповъ = priest's (from попъ = a priest, a very common surname), and include many fantastic names of sometimes curious origin, e. g. Абрикосовъ (apricot's), Философовъ (philosopher's), Грибордовъ (mushroom-eater's). It is from these words that the wellknown Russian patronymics are formed by adding to them - HULL (which is a diminutive with the special meaning son of) for the masculine and -Ha for the feminine, and it must be remembered that it is by their Christian names together with their patronymics that all Russians address one another, unless they are strangers or very intimate friends or relations. For example, if a man's surname is Поповъ, his father's name Пётръ (Peter), and his own Christian name Павель (Paul), his friends will all call him Павель Петровичь; let us say that his wife's name is Анна (Anne) and her father's Christian name Ива́нь, her full name will be Анна Ива́новна Попова, and all her friends will call her Анна Ивановна. There is a number of possessive adjectives from soft stems corresponding to the hard represented by Ива́новъ, e.g. Андре́й = Andrew, makes Андре́евъ; Васи́лій = Basil—Васи́льевъ; Сергв́й = Sergius—Серrы́ввь. In this category are included names of not purely Russian origin such as Турге́невъ = Turgénev.

Besides there is a large number of names and words which form their possessive adjectives in -инъ, -ынъ, instead of in -овъ (the caseendings are exactly the same), e. g. Oomá (Thomas) makes Oomínto. fem. Оомина with patronymic Оомичь (Thomas's son); Илья (Elias) -Ильинъ (patronymics Ильичь, fem. Ильинична); Никита (Victor) -Никитинъ (the name of a well-known poet); царица (tsaritsa. empress)—Царицынъ (a large town on the Volga, sc. городъ). Царіщыно (sc. село́, a place near Moscow), while царь makes ца́ревъ. This category includes such words as мужнинь = husband's (from мужь = husband), женинь = wife's (жена), братнинь = brother's (брать), and се́стринь = sister's (сестра́), and those derived from diminutives, e.g. Серёжинъ from Серёжа = Сергый = Sergius. Сашинъ from Саша = Александръ or Александра = Alexander and Alexandra. Господы = the Lord makes Господень, Господия. Госполне.

All these possessive adjectives have only the predicative form.

Finally there is a large category of possessive adjectives formed especially from names of animals, but including some others;

these have only the attributive form. As the declension is rather different from the others, an example is given:

рыбій = fish's (from рыба = fish).

		Singular.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N.	ры́бій	ры́бья	ры́бье
G.	откадій	рыбьей	откадійц
D.	рыбьему	рыбьей	рыбьему
Α.	= N. or G.	рыбью	ры́бье
I.	ры́бьимъ	рыбьей	<b>а</b> мпадіад
L.	ры́бьемъ	ры́бьей	рыбьемъ
	4	Plural.	
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
N.		ры́быи	
G.		рыбыхъ	
D.		ры́бьимъ	
A.		= N. or G.	
I.		ры́быми	
L.		рыбыхъ	

Common words belonging to this category are во́лчій = wolf's (волкь), ли́сій = fox's (лиса́), соба́чій = dog's (соба́ка), ко́шечій = cat's (кошка), медв'якій = bear's (медв'ядь), пти́чій = bird's (пти́ца), Бо́жій = God's (Богь), челов'ячій = man's, human (челов'якь), and the ordinal тре́тій = third, e.g. тре́тьяго кла́сса = of the third class, въ тре́тьемъ кла́ссв = in the third class, and the idiom тре́тьяго дня = theday before yesterday (lit. = of the third day).

## § 56. Note on the Terminations of Adjectives.

Adjectives ending in -оватый от -еватый correspond in meaning to English adjectives in -ish, e.g. желтоватый = yellowish (жёлтый = yellow).

Those ending in -астый often imply largeness of the attribute, борода́стый = with a big beard (борода́ = beard, борода́тый = bearded) Those in -астый imply possession of a certain attribute: душа́стый = fragrant, possessing sweet smell (духь = spirit, духи́ (pl.) = scent).

The terminations - ëхонькій, - о́хонькій, - ёшенькій imply completeness; very often the adjective in its original form precedes the other; these forms are usually used predicatively:

сыть-сытёхонекъ = absolutely satiated (with food),

• одинъ-одинёхонекъ = quite alone.

The terminations -енькій and -онькій are diminutive:

ма́ленькій = small (from ма́лый, which is seldom used).

### THE COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

### § 57. The Predicative Comparative.

The comparative is formed by cutting off the -mm (or -om) of the attributive form of the adjective and adding -me (or -mm) to the stem.

The word thus formed has no singular or plural and is indeclinable; also it can only be used predicatively.

In the case of words of more than three syllables the comparative can be formed by using the positive prefixed by the adverb, 66xhe = more, as in English, e. g. more intelligible.

Comparison can be expressed in three ways: by the words

(1) YEME (inst. sing. of 4To), and l = than

(2) нежели

followed by the nominative, and (3) by the genitive of comparison.

Examples: длинный = long, ср. длиннѣе,

эта палка длиннъе чъмъ та = this stick [is] longer than that,

красивый = beautiful, ср. красивье,

мой цвѣты́ краси́вѣе ва́шихъ (gen.) = my flowers [are] more beautiful than yours,

прямой = straight, ср. прямье,

эта дорога прямые той (gen.) = this road [is] straighter than that, or purely predicatively:

эта палка длиннье = this stick [is the] longer.

If the comparative is followed by  $er\hat{o} = his$ ,  $e\ddot{n} = hers$ , or nxb = theirs, a conjunction is necessary, e.g.

мой домъ краси́вѣе не́жели eró = my house [is] more beautiful than his, since краси́вѣе eró would mean more beautiful than he.

An example of an adjective of more than three syllables:

образованный = cultured; predic. comp. болье образовань (after which a conjunction is necessary) or образованные,

мы болье образованы чымь они = we [are] more cultured than they. Волье is also invariably used with радь = glad, which has no comparative, and with свыжий = fresh and чёрствый = hard, stale (of bread), and похожий = like, e.g.,

это болье похоже на + acc. = this is more like . . .

To express less the adverb ménte with similar construction is used, e.g.,

они менье образованы чыть мы = they are less cultured than we.

A very large number of adjectives, however, form their comparatives by adding -e instead of -he. Some of these are adjectives whose stems originally ended in a consonant, such as k, liable to be softened into a before the palatal h and absorbing it in the process, others are the result of analogical influence or quite irregular. As they are all extremely common words a full list is given:

```
высо́кій = high, tall
                                       ср. выше
ниже
глубо́кій = deep
                                            глубже
ме́лкій = shallow (also petty, small
  change, fine print or writing)
                                            ме́льче
                                            ши́ре
\mathbf{m}\mathbf{u}\mathbf{p}óкій = broad
ýзкій = narrow
                                            уже<sup>1</sup>
палёкій = distant
                                            дальние
                                            ближе
близкій = near
                                            то́лше
то́лстый = thick, fat (especially)
то́нкій = thin
                      of solids
                                            то́ныне
                   especially of
                                            гуще
густой = thick (
жи́дкій = thin | liquids and gases |
                                            жиже
рвдкій = rare, sparse
                                            рѣже
ранній = early
                                            раньше
долгій = long (of time)
                                            дольше
коро́ткій = short
                                             короче
                                             ковпче
крѣпкій = strong
 простой = simple
                                             проще
```

<sup>1</sup> Not to be confused with the conjunction yme = already.

стро́гій = severe	cp.	строже
тихій $= calm$ , $slow$	"	ти́ше
лёгкій $= light$	- 55	ле́гче
дорого́й $= dear$	"	дороже
дешёвый $= cheap$	,,	дешевле
богатый = rich	. ,,	богаче
молодо́й $=$ $young$	,,	моложе
ста́рый $= old$	"	ста́рше
чи́стый = clean	"	чище
твёрдый = $firm$ , $hard$	32	твёрже
сла́дкій = sweet	,,	слаще
го́рькій = bitter	. "	эгорче
жа́ркій = hot	"	жа́рче
большой = biq	"	больше
ма́лый (ма́ленькій) = little	•	меньше
хоро́шій = nice, good	27	лу́чше
худой (плохой, дурной) = $bad$	93	хуже
AJMON (INIONOM, AJPHON) = Octo	,,,	Aymo

A few adjectives have two forms of the comparative: тяжёлый = heavy, ср. тяже́ле and тяжеле́в поздній = late, ср. поэже and поздне́в.

Худо́й has two meanings, (1) thin (of human beings and animals) and (2) bad; the comparative of the first meaning is худь́е and of the second ху́же. Fat (of human beings and animals) is usually rendered by полный (ср. полны́е) = full, though то́лстый (but only in the positive) is also used less politely of human beings.

As regards the accent the following rule may be mentioned: all so-called irregular comparatives (e. g. больше) are accented on the penultimate. Of the others, adjectives of two syllables are accented on the h of -he; also anon wicked—arhe. Adjectives of more than two syllables keep the accent in the comparative where it was in the positive, e.g. kpachbur beautiful—kpachbe; to this rule there are a few exceptions:

здоро́вый = healthy ср. здоровь́е холо́дный = cold ,, холодны́е гори́чій = hot , горячь́е

(горя́чій is used of substances, e.g. water, food, also of the emotions; жа́ркій is used especially of the weather; тёплый = warm (ср. тепль́е) is used for everything).

### § 58. The Attributive Comparative.

When the comparative is used, not for purposes of strict comparison but as an attributive adjective expressing a stronger degree of any quality than is expressed by the positive, the form in -be, &c., cannot be employed. Instead it must be either expressed by using 66nbe with the positive or by another special form which some adjectives possess; this form ends in -bhuin, -ahuin, -unin, or -unon and is declined like хорошій (or like молодой).

As only a few adjectives are commonly used in this form a full list is given:

высо́кій = high, tall, ср. вы́сшій, е. g.

высшіе чины = the upper ranks (of officials)

въ высшей сте́пени =in the highest (lit. very high) degree

ни́зкій = low, ср. ни́зшій, е. g.

низшія цѣ́ны = lower prices

низшее мъсто = a lower place

да́льній = distant, ср. дальнѣ́йшій, e.g.

дальнѣйшее развите = the subsequent development (there is no attributive comparative from далёкій)

ста́рый = old, ср. ста́ршій, е. g.

ста́ршій брать = elder brother

молодой = young, ср. мла́дшій (from another stem млад-), е.д. мла́дшая дочь = younger daughter

[хоро́шій = nice, good], ср. лу́чшій, е. g. лу́чшіе магазины = the superior shops

худой = bad, ср. ху́дигій, е. g.

ху́дшіе coptá = inferior sorts

большой = big, ср. большій, е. g.

большею частью = for the greater part

большіе города́ = the larger towns

ма́лый (ма́ленькій) = little, ср. ме́ньшій = lesser and меньшо́й = younger, e. g.

cámoe меньшее = the very least

меньшой сынь = younger (or youngest) son.

The form in -kūmiñ and -áŭmiñ possessed by several adjectives, e.g. сла́бый = weak, слабъйшій, крѣпкій = strong, крѣпча́йшій, із in meaning rather a superlative (like our very weak, very strong)

than a comparative. In almost all cases except those mentioned the attributive comparative can be and is usually expressed by 6óxte with the positive, e.g.

это болье красивая шляна = this [is] the prettier hat.

Rather + the positive or comparative is expressed by no- and the comparative, e.g.

мнь нужна палка по-длиннье = I want (to me is necessary) a rather long(er) stick

я хочу́ что́-нибудь по-лу́чше, по-краси́вь́е, по-деше́вле =I want something rather better (superior), prettier, cheaper (sc. than what you've shown me).

### § 59. The Superlative.

The superlative can be expressed in several ways; the commonest way is to use the pronoun самый with the positive (and in some cases the comparative), e.g.

са́мый краси́вый — most beautiful са́мый некраси́вый — ugliest са́мый лу́чшій — best са́мый плохо́й райовій скве́рный = worst са́мый большо́й — biggest са́мый ма́ленькій — smallest са́мый ста́ршій — eldest са́мый ма́ленькій — youngest са́мый вы́сшій — highest са́мый ни́зшій — lowest са́мый крѣ́шкій — strongest са́мый крѣ́шкій — strongest са́мый крѣ́шкій — strongest са́мый сла́оый — weakest, &c.

These can be used either predicatively or attributively, e.g. cámhiñ nýumiñ marasúmb = the best shop это булеть самое лучшее = that will be the best (sc. way).

Another way of forming the superlative is by means of the prefix han-, but only a few adjectives (always comparatives) are treated in this way and even they are seldom used, the form being considered archaic and pedantic. The commonest are:

наилу́чшій = bestнаибо́льшій = biggestнаиме́ньшій = smallest Another way of expressing very is by means of the prefix npe, which is followed by the positive; this form is quite common, e. g.

прекоро́шенькій = very pretty преподо́бный = very reverend прескве́рный = very bad

пре- also occurs in the word превосхо́дный = excellent.

The termination -faming, -amunic is added to a few adjectives with the meaning of a superlative; the commonest are:

высо́кій = high, superl. высоча́й:шій веліній = great, superl. велича́й:шій малый = little, superl. маль́й:шій

e. g. бель мал'яйшаго сомн'я = without the smallest doubt глубокій = deep, superl. глубочайшій чистый = clean, pure, superl. чистьйшій любезный = amiable, superl. любезныйшій дорогой = dear, superl. дражайшій (from a stem драг-).

Yet another way of expressing the superlative predicatively is by the predicative comparative followed by BCEXE, e. g.

это м'ясто лучше всыхь = this place [is] the best of all.

### THE NUMERALS

### § 60. The Cardinal and Ordinal Numerals.

1	оди́нъ, одна́, одно́	пе́рвый
2	два (M. and N.) двѣ (F.)	второй
3	три	третій
4	четы́ре	четвёртый
5	аткп	йытки
6	шесть	тестой
7	семь	седьмой
8	восемь	восьмой
9	де́вять	девя́тый
10	десять	десятый
11	одиннадцать	одиннадцатый
12	двѣна́дцать	двѣна́дцатый
13	трина́дцать	тринадцатый

14	четы́рнадцать	четы́рнадцатый
15	пятна́дцать	пятнадцатый
16	шестна́дцать	шестнадцатый
17	семна́дцать	семнадцатый
18	восемна́дцать	восемнадцатый
19	девятна́дцать	девятнадцатый
20	два́дцать	двадцатый
21	двадцать одинъ одна, &с.	двадцать первый
22	двадцать два, двѣ	двадцать второй
23	двадцать трії	двадцать третій
30	тридцать	тридцатый
40	со́рокъ	сороковой
50	пятьдеся́ть	пятидеся́тый
60	шестьдеся́ть	шестидесятый
70	се́мьдесять	семидесятый
. 80	восемьдесять	восьмидесятый
90	девяносто	девяностый
100	сто	со́тый
200	двѣсти	двухсо́тый
300	три́ста	трёхсо́тый
400	четы́реста	четырёхсотый
500	пятьсоть	пятисотый
1,000	тысяча	тысячный
2,000	двѣ тысячи	двухтысячный
5,000	пять тысячъ	пятитысячный
10,000	десять тысячь	десятитысячный
100,000	сто тысячь	стотысячный
1,000,000	милліо́нъ	милліо́нный

# § 61. Declension and Use of the Numerals.

# Одинъ is declined as follows:

		Singular.	
	Masc.	Fem.	 Neut.
N.	одинъ	одна	одно
G.	одного	одной	одного
D.	одному́	одной	одному
A.	= N. or G.	одну	одно
I.	однимъ	одной	однимъ
L.	одномъ	одной	OTHÓME

PIM	

	Masc.	Neut.	Fem.	
N.	одни	й	однѣ	
G.	одн	и́хъ	однѣ́хъ	
D	одн	и́мъ	однѣ́мъ	
A.	= N	V. or G.	= N. or	G,
I.	одн	и́ми	однѣ́ми	
L.	одн	и́хъ	однѣхъ	

The plural of одинъ is used in several ways, e. g.

однъ дамы = ladies only

мы одни = (1) only we
= (2) we [are] alone
одними руками = with the hands only
but одной руками = with one hand
одними словами = by words alone
but однимъ словомъ = in one word
одинъ Вогъ знаеть = God alone knows
одно и тоже = one and the same thing

однообразный = monotonous.

Оди́нъ, одна, одно́ is used in all numbers compounded with 1 according to the gender of the substantive which follows, which is always in the nom. sing., e.g.

двадцать одинь годь = twenty-one years сорокь одинь рубль = forty one roubles тысяча и одиа ночь = the thousand and one nights.

	два, дв	b = tvo.		о́ба, о́б $\S = \emptyset$	ooth.
M	lasc. Neu	t.	Fem.	Masc. Neut.	Fem.
N.	два		двѣ	о́ба	óбѣ
G.		двухъ	1.0	обо́нхъ	обѣ́ихъ
D.		двумъ		обо́имъ	об'Енмъ
A.		= N. or G.	- *	= N. or	: G.
I.		двумя́		обо́ими	обѣ́ими
L.		двухъ		обо́ихъ	ахиато

три = three, четыре = four.

 N.
 три
 четыре

 G.
 трёхь
 четырёхь

 D.
 трёмь
 четырёмь

 A.
 = N. or G.
 = N. or G.

 I.
 тремя́
 четырьмя́

 L.
 трёхь
 четырёхь

Substantives of any gender which follow mea, the and vertice, as well as all numerals compounded with these three, are invariably in the gen. sing., not in the nom. pl. The reason for this is that mea originally took the dual and the nom. dual masc. ended in a, i.e. was in appearance identical with the gen. sing. When the dual became obsolete the ending -a still continued to be used after mea but came to be looked on as the gen. sing. Subsequently through analogical influence the gen. sing. of feminine nouns was used after mea, and also the gen. sing. of nouns of all genders came to be used after the and vertice as well as after mea. The old dual is still apparent in the word meacher = 200; e.g.

два бра́та = two brothers

три стола́ = three tables

двѣ сестры́ = two sisters (nom. pl. = сёстры)

четы́ре села́ = four villages (nom. pl. = сёла)

два́дцать два́ го́да = twenty-two years

сто три рубля́ = one hundred and three roubles, &c.

If an adjective comes between the numeral and the noun, it can be in either the nom. pl. or the gen. pl., not in the singular, as might be expected, e.g.

двѣ краси́выя (ог краси́выхъ) дѣ́вочки = two pretty little girls три больши́е (ог больши́хъ) до́ма = three large houses.

The effect of putting the numeral after the noun is to make the former somewhat indefinite:

дня два = about two days, two or three days roда четыре = about four years.

Of course, if used in any other case but the nominative, both numeral and substantive, and when there is an adjective, that also, agree, the regular cases of the plural being used, e. g.

N. два маленькіе мальчика = two little boys

G. двухъ ма́ленькихъ ма́льчиковъ = of two little boys

D. двумъ маленькимъ мальчикамъ = to , to &c.

N. TPH CECTPÉ = three sisters

G. трёхъ сестёрь = of ,,

D. трёмъ сёстрамъ = to , or сестра́мъ, &c.

As regards ofa, of the masc. and neut. take the gen. sing., but the fem. takes the nom. pl., hence:

оба брата

о́ба села́ (nom. pl. would be сёла)

but объ сёстры (gen. sing. would be сестры).

Иять = five, and all numerals ending in -ь up to and including тридцагь:

	Masc.	Neut.	Fem.
N.		TRIL	
G.		пяти́	
D.		natń	
A.		аткп	
ī.		о̀аткп	
L.		пяти	

N.B. BÓCEMA has G. D. L. BOCEMÁ and I. BOCEMEJO.

Пятьдесять = fifty, шестьдесять = sixty, сёмьдесять = seventy, восемьдесять = eighty:

	Masc. Neut. Fem.
N.	пятьдеся́ть
G.	пяти́десяти
D.	пяти́десяти
A.	пятьдесять
I.	пятью́десятью
L.	пяти́десяти

The numbers from пять onwards are really feminine nouns, equivalent for example to the French une cinquaine.

The numbers from 11-19 are composed of the single numerals and ten joined together by na = on to, e.g.

трина́дцать = три на десять = three on to ten.

Двадцать and тридцать are two-tens and three-tens.

In пятьдеся́ть, шестьдеся́ть, се́мьдесять and во́семьдесять the -десять is an old gen. pl. and пятьдеся́ть might be translated in French une cinquaine de dizaines.

Со́рокь = forty (from the Greek τεσσαράκοντα) is declined like стожь, i. e.

G. coporá

D. сороку́, &с.,

and gebenore eninety and cro = one hundred are declined like a hard neuter noun except when followed by a noun, when they have only one ending for all the cases, viz. -a, e.g.

ста рублями = with a hundred roubles. въ сорока́ случаяхъ = in forty cases.

Also when compounded with other numerals, e.g.

въ ста шести домахъ = in one hundred and six houses.

Дв'ясти = 200, триста = 300, четыреста = 400, пятьсоть = 500, &с.

N. двісти триста четыреста пятьсоть

G. двухъ сотъ трёхъ соть четырёхъ соть пяти соть

D. двумъ стамъ трёмъ стамъ четырёмъ стамъ пяти́ стамъ

A. = N. or G.

third syllable throughout.

І. двумя стами тремя стами четырьмя стами пятью стами

L. двухъ стахъ трёхъ стахъ четырёхъ стахъ пяти́ стахъ

# Тысяча is declined like a feminine noun in -ча

Singular. Plural.

N. ты́сяча
 е. g. деѣ ты́сячи
 пять ты́сячь
 пять ты́сячь
 пяти ты́сячь
 пяти ты́сячь

D. ты́сячь двумь ты́сячамь пяти́ ты́сячамь

А. ты́сячу = N. or G.

I. тысячей (also тысячью) двумя́ тысячами пятью́ тысячами

L. TÉCRYE ABYXE TÉCRYAXE HATÚ TÉCRYAXE MULHÍCHE IS declined like CTORE, but with the accent fixed on the

The substantives which follow all numerals ending in -5 from 5 onwards, except compounds of 1, 2, 3, and 4, such as 21, 32, 44, &c., provided the numerals are in the nom. or acc., are always in the gen. pl. The reason for this is that, as has already been stated, nath, &c., are really feminine substantives, and so the noun following is naturally put in the gen. pl. This can be seen in the word nathedecate = 50, which is really a nom. sing. (nath) followed by a (now obsolete) gen. pl. (gecath) and means a five of tens. If followed by any other cases than the nom. or acc. both numeral

and substantive agree, as in the case of два, три, &c. Besides the numerals which end in -ь, со́рокъ = 40, сто = 100, двъ́сти = 200, три́ста = 300, &c., ты́сяча = 1,000, and милліо́нъ come under the above rule, e.g.

пять рублёй = five roubles десять днёй = ten days but N.B. сь пятью дётьми = with five children.

### § 62. Cardinal Numbers in Composition.

Одинъ makes одно-, e. g. однодворецъ = freeholder (peasant).

Два makes дву- and двух-, e. g. двугла́вый = double-headed, двусмы́сленный = ambiguous, двуль́тній = two-year-old, but двухэта́жный = two-storied (house), двухме́стный = having two seats.

Три makes тре- in треуго́льный = three-cornered, otherwise трёх-; e.g. трёхля́тній = three-year-old, трёхрублёвый = of three roubles.

Четыре makes четверо- in четвероугольный = four-cornered, square, otherwise четырёх-; e.g. четырехэтажный = of four floors.

All others end in -n, e.g. семиль́тняя война́ = the seven years' war.

Notice the forms: двою́родный брать = first cousin (masc.) двою́родная сестра́ = ", " (fem.) трою́родный, &c. = second cousin.

For numerals in composition in the expression of money-values, of. § 69.

# § 63. Ordinal Numbers.

The ordinal numbers are declined like attributive adjectives, второ́й, песто́й, седьмо́й, восьмо́й, and сороково́й like молодо́й, тре́тій like ры́бій, and the rest like бѣ́лый. The ordinals have no short or predicative form, hence

я пе́рвый = I am the first.

The following idiomatic uses of the ordinals may be observed:

во-пе́рвыхъ = firstly, in the first place во-вторы́хъ = secondly во-тре́тьихъ = thirdly самъ-тре́тій = I and two others самъ-четвёртый = I and three others.

For the use of the ordinals in the expression of time, cf. § 68.

### § 64. Distributive Numbers.

These are expressed by prefixing the preposition no to the cardinal numbers; два, три, четыре, and сорокь remain in the nom. and the following substantive in the gen. sing. or plur., but all the other numbers are put in the dat. with the substantive in the dat. after одинъ and in the gen. plur. after all the others, e.g.

онъ подариль намъ по одной книгь = he gave us one book each

у нась по двъ, у вась по три, а у нахъ по четыре собаки = we have two, you have three, and they have four dogs each

у обоихъ по пяти лошадей = they have both five horses each.

For the use of the distributives in the expression of money-values, cf. § 69.

### § 65. Multiplicative Numerals.

These are expressed as follows:

разъ = once (lit. = a blow)

два pása = twice (lit. = two blows)

три ра́за = thrice четь́ре ра́за = four times

пять разъ = five times.

meсть разъ, &c.; разъ is the old gen. plur. still used in a few phrases of this kind where it had become crystallized; the gen. plur. in -овъ originally belonged to only a few nouns, but became general gradually.

In counting (for games, music, &c.) the formula is: разъ, два, три, четыре = one, two, three, four.

The three words однажды = once, дважды = twice, and трижды = thrice, were borrowed from Old Bulgarian, but are almost obsolete; однажды is still sometimes used for one fine day, or once upon a time, but разь ог одинь разь is more usual.

Notice the following idioms in which past occurs:

сколько разъ (gen. pl.) = how many times, how often

мно́го разъ (gen. pl.) = many times

нъсколько разъ (gen. pl.) = several times

сразу (gen. sing.) = all at once, suddenly

and especially the difference between:

неразъ = more than once

e. g. я неразъ говорилъ . . . = I have said more than once . . . and ни разу не . . . = not once

e. g. онъ ни разу не-быль у нась = he has not once been at our house.

The expression twice as is rendered by въ-двое with the comparative, e.g.

это вино въ-двое лучше того = this wine is twice as good as that. ваше перо вътрое дороже моего = your pen is three times as dear as mine.

For larger numbers it is more usual to turn it, e.g.

этоть театрь вь тысячу разь красивье чымь тоть  $= this\ theatre$ is a thousand times more beautiful than that.

Expressions such as ten-fold, used predicatively, are rendered by въ-десятеро, &с.

The adjectival multiplicatives:

двойной = double, two-fold, тройной = treble, three-fold,

are quite common and are declined like молодой. Simple = простой.

#### Collective Numerals. § 66.

These are used for the numbers from 2-8 and 10:

дво́е mécrepo 3 moée семеро 4 четверо восьмеро 5 пятеро 10 десятеро

двое and трое are declined as follows:

N. двое

G. двойхъ

D. твоймъ.

A. = N. or G.

I. пвойми

L. двойхъ

the others:

N. четверо

G. четверыхъ

D. четверымъ

A. = N. or G.

I. четверыми

L. **четверыхъ** 

These numerals are especially common in phrases such as the following:

насъ трое = there are three of us, which also means we three (it would be impossible to say мы три), у меня четверо детей = Ihave four children, ихъ было mécrepo = there were (lit. was) six of them, and with nouns which are only used in the plural, e.g. cáhu = sledge, ше́стеро сане́й = six sledges, часы́ = watch, clock, тро́е часовъ = three watches. Notice сотня = 100 (often sc. soldiers).

N.B. въ-пвоёмъ =  $t\hat{e}te-\hat{a}-t\hat{e}te$ 

въ троёмъ = a trois

пара (лошадей) = a pair of horses

тройка = three horses abreast

четвёрка = four "

Tpónna = the Trinity

дюжина = a dozen, but must only be used of things, never of people

деся́токъ = ten, e. g. деся́тки ты́сячъ = tens of thousands близнецы = twins.

Notice the curious idiom  $\pi$  camb-gpyre = I and another.

= deuce (at cards) двойка

семёрка = seven

тройка = three

восьмёрка = eightдевятка

четвёрка = four

= nine

пятёрка = fiveшестёрка = six

деся́тка = ten.

For the use of the collectives as multiplicatives cf. § 65.

### Fractions.

Половина = a half, and is declined like a hard fem. noun, with the accent fixed on the third syllable.

 $2\frac{1}{2}$  = два (ог двѣ) съ полови́ной

 $3\frac{1}{2}$  = три съ полови́ной, &c.

For 11 there is a special word:

полтора (made up of пол- and второй = half-second) for the masculine, and полторы for the feminine, e. g.

N. полтора́ фу́нта (gen. sing.) =  $1\frac{1}{2}lb$ . подторы сажени , ,  $= 1\frac{1}{2}$  fathom.

For all the other cases the form nonýropa is used for both genders, the noun being declined in the plural, e.g. полутора фунтами.

150 = полтора́ста

N. полтора́ста

G. D. I. L. полутораста

Half-in composition is treated as follows:

N. полфу́нта =  $\frac{1}{2}lb$ .

G. полуфунта

D. полуфу́нту

 $A_{\cdot} = N.$ 

І. полуфунтомъ

L. полуфу́нтъ

The plural is полуфунты, &c., like an ordinary hard masculine noun.

полрю́мки =  $half\ a\ wine-glass$  would be declined similarly, but with the feminine substantival endings.

For полдень and полночь cf. § 68.

1/3 = треть, a feminine noun declined like ло́шадь but with the accent fixed on the first syllable;

3 = двѣ тре́ти;

1 = че́тверть, feminine, declined like треть;

3 = три че́тверти.

Other fractions are expressed as follows:

 $\frac{1}{5}$  = одна́ пя́тая (sc. часть = part);

 $\frac{2}{5}$  = двѣ пя́тыхъ;

три седьмыхъ.

### § 68. Expression of Time.

Чась = hour (N.B. часы = watch or clock)

what time is it? = который чась?

at what hour...? = въ кото́ромъ часу́...? (cf. § 39, obs. 7)

1 o'clock = чась (sc. первый = first)

at , = Bb yacb

1.15 — часъ съ четвертью (=  $1\frac{1}{4}$ )

ог че́тверть второ́го ( $=\frac{1}{4}$  of the 2nd)

1.5 = пять минуть второго (= 5 min. of the 2nd)

1.30 = половина второго

ог второго половина

at 1.30 = въ половину второго

```
= безъ четверти два (= without \ 2)
       1.45
     at 1.45
                 ог въ часъ сорокъ пять
       2 o'clock = пва часа́
     at
                 = въ два часа́
at about
                 = часа́ въ два
                 — де́сять мину́ть тре́тьяго
       2.10
                 = половина третьяго
       2.30
       3 o'clock = три часа́
                 = безъ десяти (минутъ) четыре
       3.50
       4 o'clock = четы́ре часа́
                 = пять часовъ
       10.30
                 = половина одиннадцатаго
       12 o'clock = двънадцать часовъ

че́тверть пе́рваго

       12.15
       12.30
                 = половина перваго
       12.45 — безъ четверти часъ
       12.55
                 = безъ пяти (минуть) часъ.
                half-an-hour = полчаса́
                2 hours
                             = пва часа
                21 hours

    два часа́ съ полови́ной
```

1 hour

Notice especially the word су́тки (nom. pl. fem.) = the 24 hours, a day and night, e.g.

= полтора́ часа́.

тро́е су́токъ (gen. pl.) = 72 hours

цѣдыя су́тки = a whole 24 hours

чéтверо су́токъ = four days and nights

пять су́токъ = five ...

minute = мину́та

'one minute' = одну́ мину́ту, мину́точку

'this minute' = сію́ мину́ту

second = секу́нда

this instant = сію́ секу́нду

or сей-часъ

in one minute = въ одну́ мину́ту
in fire minutes = че́резъ цять мину́ть
in two hours = че́резъ два часа́

N.B. Tépeza can also give the meaning every other:

че́резъ часъ = (1) in an hour's time

(2) every other hour.

Notice that:

about two hours = около двухъ часовъ about two o'clock

every minute (incessantly) = по-минутно

Gen. полудня

Loc. полудни

The phrase по-полудни = after noon is very common, as Russian has no single word for afternoon, e.g.

> at 4 p.m. = въ 4 ч. по-полудни

in the afternoon = (1) по-полу́дни

(2) днёмъ (inst. of день)

Gen. полуночи.

N.B. half-a-day = полдня

half-a-night = полночи

daily (adj.) = ежедне́вный

(adv.) = eжеднéвно.

The days of the week are:

Воскресе́ніе = Sunday (lit. = resurrection)

вторникъ = Tuesday (cf. второй) = Wednesday (= centre) среда

четве́ргъ = Thursday (cf. четвёртый)

пя́тнипа = Friday (cf. пятый) = Saturday (= Sabbath). суббота

> on Sunday = въ Воскресение

= въ понедъльникъ on Monday

N.B. on Tuesday = во вторникъ

on Wednesday = въ среду

on Thursday = въ четве́ргъ

on Friday = въ пятницу

on Saturday = въ субботу

on Sundays = по Воскресе́ніямъ, &с.

```
week = недыя
fortnight = двы недый
this week = эту недый
every week = каждую недыю
for a week = на недыю
weekly = еженедыный.
```

### Notice the idiom:

```
ту недѣлю = next week or last week (lit. that week) на той недѣлѣ = ,, ,, (sc. in or during . . .).
```

### The months are:

```
янва́рь = January
                           ію́ль
                                   = July
\phiевра́ль = February
                           áвгусть = August
марть
       = March
                           сентябрь = September
октябрь = October
май
       = May
                           ноябрь = November
іюнь
       = June
                           дека́брь = December
```

they are all masculine.

*in January* = въ январѣ́ *in May* = въ ма́ѣ.

In the words for the first two and the last four months the accent is always on the ending, in the others it remains throughout where it is in the nominative.

Month	= мѣсяцъ
monthly	= ежемѣсячный
the date	<b>—</b> число́
Jan. 1st	= пе́рвое января́ (sc. число́)
on Feb. 2nd	<ul><li>второго февраля́ (sc. числа́)</li></ul>
on March 3rd	= третьяго марта
of the fifth of April (e.g. letter)	= оть пя́таго апрѣ́ля
on May 21st	= два́дцать-пе́рваго ма́я
on June 30th	= тридцатаго ію́ня
on July 31st	= тридцать-перваго іюля
what date is it to-day?	<ul><li>како́е (от кото́рое) сего́дня число́ ?</li></ul>
year	= годъ
half-year	= полго́да
two years	= два го́да
three years	= три го́да
four years	= четыре года

but five years = пять льть (lit. = summers) six years = шесть лѣть till twenty-one years = двадцать-одинъ годъ twenty-two years двадцать-два года twenty-five years = двадцать-пять лѣть &c. how old are you? = сколько вамь лъть? twenty-three двадцать-три года this year въ этомъ году́ = въ прошломъ году́ last year = прошлого́дній last year's next year = въ будущемъ году = въ тысяча восемь сотъ девяносто in the year 1899 девя́томъ году́ (i. e. only the last numeral is an ordinal) = въ (тысяча) девять соть четырin the year 1914 надцатомъ году = тысяча девять сотаго года of the year 1900 the twenties = двадцатые годы of the thirties тридцатыхъ годо́въ in the forties = въ сороковыхъ годахъ (but only of historical periods, not of personal age) century = (1) въкъ (2) столѣтіе. Ago is expressed in two ways: (1) by sa with the acc., e.g. ва́ два го́да = two years ago or (2) by тому назадъ (= to it back), e.g. пять лъть тому назадъ = five years ago in a year's time = черезъ годъ every other year = (1) черезъ годъ (2) каждые два года every year = каждый годъ yearly = ежего́дный = Time Время со временемъ = in time, gradually время отъ времени = from time to time

= during

= in time (sc. punctually)

во время (+gen.)

во-время

```
пора
                             = it is time
    порами
                             = at times
    поро́й
    сь тъхъ поръ
                             = from that time on
    до тёхъ поръ
                             = till then
                             = till now
    до сихъ поръ
    сь какихь поръ?
                             = since when?
but въ-пору
                             = it fits (of clothes, &c.)
                             = it does not fit.
    не въ-пору
```

# § 69. Expression of money-values.

```
Полтинникъ
                  =\frac{1}{5}-rouble (= 50 kopeks)
рубль
                 = a \ rouble (=1s. \ 11d.)
                  =1\frac{1}{2} rouble
полтора рубля
                  = 2 roubles .
два рубля
два съ полтиной = 2\frac{1}{2} roubles
пять рублей
                  = 5 roubles
пять съ полтиной = 51 roubles
копѣйка
                 = a \ kopek \ (=\frac{1}{4}d.)^1
лвъ копъйки
                 = 2 kopeks
пять копъекъ
                  = 5 kopeks
  60 kopeks = шестьдесять копъекъ
             or mесть гривенъ
  70
             = семьдесять копъекъ
             or семь гри́венъ
  80
             = восемьдесять копбекъ
             or восемь гривенъ.
```

The following are the colloquial names of the current coins and notes:

```
пятакъ
                          = 5 kopeks (copper)
пятачокъ
                                     (nickel)
гризвенникъ
                          = 10
                                     (nickel; алтынь = 3 kopeks)
                          =15 ,,
пятиалтынный
двугривенникъ
                          = 20
полтина
                          =50 ,,
                                      (silver)
цѣлковый )
                          = 1 rouble
(or рубль) J
```

<sup>1</sup> Also spelt копе́йка, gen. pl. копе́екъ.

```
трёхрублёвая бумажка
                          = 3-rouble note
пятирублёвая бумажка
                          = 5-rouble note
or синенькая (little blue)
десятирублёвая бумажка
                          = 10 ,
or красненькая (little red)
двадцатипятирублёвая )
                          =25 ,,
  бумажка
сторублёвая бумажка
                          = 100 ,,
or радужная (rainbow)
однокопъечная марка = a 1-kopek stamp
дву́х—— ,, = a 2-kopek
трёх----
                 = a \cdot 3 \cdot kopek
четырёх----
                      = a 4 \cdot kopek
                 ,,
семи---
                      = a 7 \cdot kopek
                      = a \ 10 \cdot kopek .
десяти́ —
```

The preposition no followed by a numeral = at . . .: the numerals are in the dat., or acc., cf. § 61:

> двъ марки по одной копъйкъ = two 1-kopek stamps нять марокь по-дві копівни = five 2-kopek . ., де́сять ма́рокъ по-семи́ копъекъ = ten 7-kopek (от десять семикопъечных марокъ, &с.).

The question at what price? is expressed by the idiom no. чёмъ? е. g.

но-чёмъ эти галстуки? = at what price (sc. how much) (are) these neckties?

по-два рубля = two roubles each по-пяти рублей = five roubles each.

For the use of the preposition BD with similar meaning cf. § 65.

### THE ADVERB

§ 70. The adverb is generally the same as the nominative singular neuter of the predicative adjective, e.g.

MUJICIAM милая милое = nice: attributive form MUJITA мила. мило predicative form мило - nicelu

хорошій хорошая xopómee = good, nice хоро́шъ хороша́ хорошо́ = good, nice

хорошо́ = well; all right.

Similarly: пло́хо = badly

ду́рно = скве́рно =

 $\text{нехорош}\acute{o} = ,, &c.$ 

Soft adjectives form the adverb with -e instead of -o, e.g.

кра́йній = extreme кра́йне = extremely

и́скренній = sincere и́скренне = sincerely

but many of them take to like the hard adjectives, e.g.

 ра́нній
 = early
 ра́но
 = early (adv.)

 по́здній
 = late
 по́здно
 = late (adv.)

 да́вній
 = former
 давно́
 = long ago

искренній also makes искренно.

Owing to the fact that the present tense of the verb to be is almost quite obsolete in Russian, the adverb is very frequently used as an impersonal verb forming a sentence by itself, e.g.

ра́но = it is early (often = too early)

поздно = it is late (often = too late)

жа́рко = it is hot

тепло́ = it is warm

близко =it is near

высоко́ = it is high хорошо́, что вы пришли́ = it is well (or nice) that you have come возмо́жно, что онъ придёть = it is possible, that he will come невозмо́жно, чтобы онъ пришёль = it is impossible, that he should come.

Several adverbs can be accented in two ways, each equally correct, e.g.

темно́ or тёмно = it is dark

холодно́ or хо́лодно = it is cold

далеко́ or далёко = it is far

глубоко́ or глубо́ко = it is deep (also = deeply figuratively).

Adjectives in -скій form the adverb by changing -скій into -ски, e.g.

ирони́ческій = ironical

иронически = ironically

similarly : поэти́чески = poetically дру́жески = in a friendly way, warmly

xрони́чески = chronically, &c.

The preposition no- prefixed to such adverbs gives the meaning in the manner of:

 $\text{по-прія́тельски} = in \ a \ friendly \ way \\
 \text{по-моско́вски} = in \ Moscow fashion$ 

and if the adverb is one formed from the name of a nationality it can also mean  $in \dots e.g.$ 

 по-ру́сски
 = in Russian

 по-а́нглійски
 = in English

 по-нѣме́цки
 = in German

 по-францу́зски
 = in French

e. g. я умбю по-ру́сски ог я говорю́ по-ру́сски = I can (sc. talk) Russian, or I talk Russian

я не понимаю по-нъме́цки = I don't understand German.

Notice the idiom:

это по-каковски? = in what language is that?

Otherwise adverbial expressions with no- are formed by using the dative singular of the adjective or pronoun, e.g.

по-но́вому = in modern fashion

по-ста́рому = in old fashion

по-сво́ему = in one's own way
по-мо́ему = in my own way or in my opinion accent)

по-ва́шему = in your way or in your opinion

по-вое́нному = in military fashion.

Cf. also § 73.

§ 71. Adverbs of Place.

гдь = where нигив = nowhere

1 Rather colloquial than literary.

e.g. нигдъ нътъ мъста = there is no place (or room) anywhere нигдъ никого нътъ = there is no one anywhere

не́гдѣ = there is nowhere to . . .

e. g. не́гдь състь = there is no place to sit down

гдь́-то = somewhere, in a certain place (sc. I don't remember where, I don't know where, or I don't wish to say where)

e.g. онъ гдѣ-то въ Россі́и = he is somewhere in Russia

гав-нибудь = somewhere, anywhere

e. g. онъ проведёть зиму гдё-нибудь за-границей = he will spend the winter somewhere abroad

гдъ́-бы то ни́ было = wherever you like тамь и сямъ = here and there.

The adverbs hither, &c., are far more frequently used in Russian than in English; in English we say I am going there, but in Russian always I am going thither; in English where have you put my book? but in Russian whither, &c.; in English where did you get that hat? but in Russian whence, &c.

cюдá = hither

e.g. пойди сюда́ = come here

туда́ = thither

e.g. я иду́ туда́ = I am going there

куд $\hat{\mathbf{a}} = whither$ 

e.g. куда́ вы положи́ли мою́ кни́гу? = where have you put my book?

никуда́ = nowhither

e.g. я никуда́ не иду́ = I am not going anywhere

не́куда = there is no place whither

e.g. не́куда итти́ = there is nowhere to go to

куда́-то = somewhither

e.g. онъ куда́-то ушёль = he has gone off somewhere

куда-нибудь = somewhither

e.g. пойдёмъ куда́-нибудь = let's go somewhere (anywhere)

куда́-бы то ни́ было = whithersoever

отсюда = hence

e.g. отсюда́ до Москвы́ далеко́ = from here to Moscow it is far

отту́да = thence

e.g. отгуда до нась пять вёрсть = it is five versts from there to us

откуща = whence

e.g. вы откуда? = where do you come from?

откупа-то = somewhence

откуда-то = somewhence откуда-нибудь = somewhence

e. g. доста́ньте отку́да-нибудь =  $get\ from\ somewhere\ (no\ matter\ where)$ 

откуда-бы то ніі было = whencesoe ver.

Notice the following very idiomatic uses of гдѣ and куда́, e.g.

гдъ мнъ это сдъ́дать! = I shall never be able to do that!

гдъ вамъ! = how can you think of it!

этоть городь куда больше того = this town is ever so much bigger than that

это вино хоть куда = this wine is simply splendid

гдъ . . . , гдъ . . . = in one place . . . , in another . . .

Notice: наверху́ = up above, sc. upstairs

внизу́ = down below, sc. downstairs

вверхъ = up(wards)

внизъ = down(wards)

снару́жи = outside, outwardly

внутри = inside, inwardly.

§ 72.

Adverbs of Time.

теперь = now

тогда́ = then

всегда́ = always

когда́ = whenникогла́ = never

e.g. никогда не выъ мяса = I never eat meat

не́когда = there is no time to . . .

e. g. мн $\S$  тепе́рь не́когда! = I ve no time for that now!

нъкогда = formerly, sometime

иногда́ = at times, sometimes

Korfá-to = formerly, a long time ago (sc. I don't remember exactly when)

e.g. онь когда-то быль женать = he was married once (sc. his wife is now dead or has disappeared)

когда-нибудь = some time

 ${f e}$ . g. загляните къ намъ когда́-нибудъ! = look us up some time or other

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когда́-бы то ни было = whenever you like
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 снача́ла
 = at first

 наконе́цъ
 = at last

 уже́
 = already

 нѣть ещё ещё не
 = not yet

 уже́ нѣть, уже́ не
 = no longer

e.g. eró уже нъть здъсь = he is already gone, he is no longer here

 наконе́цъ
 = at last

 ужо́, пото́мъ
 = later on

 ско́ро
 = soon, quickly

 сно́ва, опи́ть
 = again

по-скоръ́е = as quickly as possible, hurry up!

= immediately

до́лго = a long time

онъ долго не идёть = he is a long time in coming

давно́ давно́мъ-давно́} = long ago, long since

сей-чась тоть-чась

сію минуту)

тре́тьято дня = the day before yesterday
вчера́ = yesterday
сего́дня = to-day
за́втра = to-morrow

по́слѣ-за́втра = the day after to-morrow.

## § 73.

## Adverbs of Manner.

 $_{\text{такь}} = thus$ 

какъ = how, as, like

ника́къ =(1) in no wise, by no means

e.g. ника́къ нѣть = not at all

никакъ нельзя = it is quite out of the question,

as an interrogative conjunction:

= (2) perhaps, as likely as not ника́къ онъ придёть = perhaps he will come.

The following also is used more as an interrogative conjunction:

нека́кь = I expect, as likely as not нека́кь ѣ́дуть = I think they're coming некакъ приходиять кто-то? = has any one been? какъ-то = somehow, sort of, somehow or other

e.g. мнъ ка́къ-то не ко́чется = somehow or other (I can't explain why) I don't want to

это странно какъ-го = it's queer somehow

ка́къ-то can also mean for instance, and is used as an alternative for the expression какъ напримъръ = as for example;

ка́къ-нибудь = somehow or other, by hook or by crook

 ${f e}$ . g. устройте это ка́къ-нибудь =  $arrange\ this\ (matter)\ by\ some\ means$  or other

прівзжайте къ намъ какь-нибудь льтомъ = come and see us in the summer if you possibly can

это на́до сдѣлать какъ-нибудь = (we) must do this somehow or other какъ-бы то ни́ было = however that may be ина́че (от и́наче) = otherwise, differently

это надо устронть иначе = this must be arranged differently учись корошенько, иначе тебя накажуть = learn your lesson well, otherwise they'll punish you

не такъ = differently, but very often sc. wrong (adv.); although there is a word for incorrectly, viz. неправильно, the most common way of saying wrong is не такъ, е. g.

вы не такь сдбиали = you have done it wrong онь не такь побхаль = he has taken the wrong road вы не такь сказали = you have said it wrong я не такь поняль его = I misunderstood him

though of course the same expression is often used to mean not thus literally.

Notice the very common adverbs:

вдругь = suddenly

ностепенно
мало-по-малу } = gradually

напрасно = in vain (often sc. it
is a pity that)

нарочно = on purpose
нечаянно = unintentionally
случайно = accidentally
особенно = especially

вообще́ = in general

именно = namely

дъйствительно = actually, invery

fact, indeed

конечно = of course

навърно = surely, certainly

слъдовательно = consequently

непремънно = without fail

безпрестино = incessantly

## ADVERBS OF MANNER, DEGREE, AND QUANTITY 111

включи́тельно = inclusively исключи́тельно = exclusively безусло́вно = absolutely

обыкнове́нно = usually необыкнове́нно = unusually, un чрезвыча́йно commonly

and the idioms:

такъ и сякъ = this way and that ни такъ ни сякъ = neither this way nor that такъ себ $\dot{\mathbf{E}}$  = so-so, fairly, middling ничег $\dot{\mathbf{E}}$  = , , , ,, 
такъ = gratis, for nothing, for fun я это только такъ сказаль = I didn't mean it такъ точно = just so (often used by servants = yes) точно такъ = just like that

то́чно = (1) it is just as if

ОНЪ ТО́ЧНО ВЪ Неё влюблёнъ = one would think he was in love with her = (2) really, truly, exactly

у меня́ соба́ка то́чно така́я = I've got a dog just like that

ро́вно = exactly
ро́вно въ два часа́ = exactly at two o'clock.
Cf. also § 70.

Note on the use of ro after adverbs of place, time, and manner. It should be mentioned that ro is often used enclitically after interrogative adverbs, not to express indefiniteness, but merely as an expletive, as much as to say, *I wonder*, e.g.

гд $\acute{\text{E}}$ -то он $\acute{\text{u}}$  тен $\acute{\text{e}}$ рь! = I wonder where they are now! когд $\acute{\text{a}}$ -то мы увид $\acute{\text{u}}$ мся! = I wonder when we shall meet again! к $\acute{\text{u}}$ к $\acute{\text{u}}$ -то он $\acute{\text{u}}$  устр $\acute{\text{u}}$ тся! = I wonder how he'll settle his affairs!

After definitive adverbs its use implies surprise, e.g. теперь-то я понимаю! = now I understand!

такъ-то вы по́няли мена́! = is it thus that you understood me! (i. e. thought what I meant).

# § 74. Adverbs of Degree and Quantity.

мно́го = much dimin. немно́жко = little ма́ло

e.g. дайте мн'в немно́го вина́ (gen.) = give me a little wine ещё немно́яко? = a little more?

постаточно

довольно денегь = enough money

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это мало! = that's little (sc. too little)!
    это мно́го! = that's much (sc. too much)!
    въ этой книгв мало хорошаго = in this book there's but little good
    у меня немного денегь = I have a little money (with emphasis
         on де́негь)
    у меня немного денегь)
    у меня денегь немного = I have but little money
    у меня мало денегь
                    (with emphasis on немного)
   (for the declension of the plural мно́гіе, &c., cf. § 54, obs. 9)
ско́лько = as much, how much
    сколько это стопть? = how much does this cost?
    я помотаю ему́, ско́лько могу́ = I help him as much as I can
ctoлько = so much
    онъ быль столько разъ у меня, что наконецъ онъ мнв надовль =
         he has been so many times to see me, that at last I've got sick of him
     сколько головъ, столько умовъ = so many heads, so many minds
Tóлько = only
    не то́лько = not only.
  Notice the idioms:
  да и только
                   = and that's all
  только и всего
  не хочу, да и только = I don't want to, and that's all about it
ниско́лько = not in the least (always with the negative repeated)
     я ниско́лько не хочу́ = I don't want to in the least
ско́лько-нибудь = at \ all
     е́сли онъ ско́лько-нибудь поря́дочный человѣкъ = if\ he\ is\ at\ all
          a decent fellow
нъсколько = some, a few, somewhat
     нъсколько разъ = several times
                рублей = a few roubles
     у него нѣсколько дѣтей = he has several children
     эта шляпа нъсколько дороже = this hat is rather dearer
гораздо = ever se much
     это изданіе гораздо дешевле = this edition is ever so much cheaper
дово́льно
             = enough, fairly
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дово́льно хо́лодно = it is fairly cold.
```

(N.B. not enough is usually expressed by мало, e.g. мало денегь = not enough money)

больше = тоге

у него больше книгь, чёмь у меня = he has more books than I больше всего = most of all

по-больше = a good lot, rather more

дайте мнв по-больше (+gen.) = give me a good lot of...

ме́ньше (with gen.) = less

ме́ныпе всего́ = least of all

по-ме́ньше (with gen.) = as little as possible

cкор $\acute{b}e = rather$  (sc. sooner)

я скорбе дамь вамь, чёмь ему = I would rather give (lit. shall give) it to you than to him

ели́шкомъ черезчу́ръ = too, excessively

это слишкомъ много = that is too much

это слишкомъ мало = that is too little

(N.B. never with Hemhóro)

слишкомъ = more than, above (lit. = with excess)

ему слишкомъ сорокъ лъть = he is over forty

очень = very, very much

весьма́ = very, quite

она очень мила = she is very nice

я её о́чень люблю́ = I like her very much

я о́чень хочу́ = I want to very much

у него́ о́чень  $\left\{ \substack{\text{мно́го} \\ \text{ма́ло}} \right\}$  де́негь = he has  $\left\{ \substack{a \text{ great deal of} \\ rery \ little} \right\}$  money

(N.B. never with немного)

BOBCE He = not in the least

я во́все не хочу́ = I don't in the least want to

почти (что) = almost

почти темно́ = it is nearly dark

я почти что упать = I nearly fell down

далеко́ не cobe bal he = far from, not nearly, not at all

онь далеко́ не бога́тый челов $\dot{\mathbf{h}}$ кь = he is far from being a rich man

я совствить не понимаю = I don't understand at all

coвсыть = quite

мнь совсымь удобно = I'm quite comfortable

не совсыть = not quite

вполнъ́, сполна́, сплошь = entirely

едва́, е́ле, е́ле-е́ле, чуть, чуть-чуть = scarcely, with difficulty онъ едва́ умъ́еть писать = he scarcely knows how to write она́ е́ле-е́ле хо́дить = she walks with the greatest difficulty

едва́ не, чуть не, чуть-чу́ть не = almost

меня́ една́ не уби́ли = they almost killed me она́ чуть-чу́ть не упа́ла = she very nearly fell down (чуть-чуть alone means the tiniest bit)

по крайней м $\dot{\mathbf{p}}$ р $\dot{\mathbf{h}} = at least.$ 

# Note on the Degrees of Comparison of Adverbs.

The comparative of the adverb is exactly the same as the predicative comparative of the adjective, e.g.

лу́чте = better (adj. and adv.) ху́же = worse ,

Specifically adverbial forms are:

бо́дѣе = more ме́нѣе = less cf. §§ 57, 84.

Notice:

болье или менье = more or less ни болье ни менье = neither more nor less

and the superlative forms:

наибо́две = (the) most (adv.) наиме́нве = (the) least (adv.) всего́ менве = anything rather than.

Comparatives preceded by no- are commonly used adverbially, e.g.

по-выше = higher up (sc. a little higher)

по-ни́же = lower down по-да́льше = further along

по-ближе = rather closer

and cf. p. 87.

### PARTICLES AND CONJUNCTIONS

§ 75.

$$u = and$$
;

often used to emphasize the preceding word, or with the meaning just, moreover, e.g.

я такь и думаль! = I thought as much!

этого и недоставало = it was just this that was wanting (= this is the last straw)

въ томъ-то и дъло = that's just the point

я и говори́ль ему́... = moreover I had told him..., followed by ne = not in the least

я и не хот $\acute{a}$ ть = I didn't in the least want to, or what's more I didn't want to.

In some cases, when things are mentioned in couples,  $\pi a = and$ , e.g. Myhte  $\pi a$  mená = husband and wife.

It is important to notice that expressions such as you and I are always introduced by  $\mathtt{MSI} = we$ , e.g.

мы съ ва́ми  $= you \ and \ I$  мы съ нимъ  $= he \ and \ I$ 

мы съ сестрой = my sister and I.

Any antithesis can be introduced by a, e.g.

онъ хочеть, а я не хоч $\dot{y} = he \ wants \ to, \ but \ I \ don't \ (or \ and \ I \ don't).$ 

It can usually be rendered by the English but or while, but very often it begins a sentence and corresponds to our now or and; it takes the place of  $\mathbf{n}$  (=and) whenever any antithesis is to be indicated.

 $\left.\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{Aa} \\ \mathbf{Ho} \end{array}\right\} = but$ 

this indicates stronger antithesis than a; still stronger are

одна́ко одна́коже = nevertheless

всётаки = however, after all

-таки can be added as an enclitic to words in the sentence, e.g. . онъ таки поставиль на своёмь = he (sc. in spite of everything) would have his own way

úли = or

въдь = for, for you know that

usually used as an expostulation at the beginning of a sentence, e.g. begin be shall, uto since the xou $\circ = now \ look \ here$ , you knew that I didn't want to

# § 76. Questions and Answers (cf. § 49).

These are introduced either by some interrogative pronoun or adverb, or by the use of the interrogative particle -nn, e.g.

(like French voici, voilà).

кто вы? = who are you? вы-ли это? = is this you? дома-ли баринъ? = is the gentleman at home?

In ordinary conversation the -ли is often omitted, the question being indicated by raising the voice at the end of the sentence. Что is often used at the beginning of a question instead of -ли, e. g.

что мы поѣдемъ? = shall we go?

This same question could be put in the following ways:

а что, мы поѣдемъ? поѣдемъ, что-ли?

If a negative answer is expected páзвѣ is very often used, e. g. páзвѣ вы зна́ете eró? = you don't know him, do you?

If an affirmative answer is expected, use развъ не, е. g. развъ вы меня не узнали? = didn't you recognize me? развъ вы не хотя́те? = do you mean to say you don't want to?

Incredulity and amazement are expressed by неуже́ли, е. g.

неуже́ли это правда! = can this possibly be true!

Doubt by врядъ-ли

врядъ-ли это такъ = I doubt whether this is so.

-ли —  $\dot{\mathbf{u}}$ ли — = whether — or —

я не знаю, ўмерь-ли и́ли н'ыть = I don't know whether he is dead or not.

The affirmative answer is

да = yes, and the negative нъть = no,

but as often as not a question can be answered by repeating a word contained in the question, e.g.

зна́ете-ли вы его́?— зна́ю— = do you know him?— yes, I do. до́ма-ли ба́рыня?— до́ма = is the lady at home?— yes.

Other common expressions are:

коне́чно = of course eще́-бы! = I should say so!

§ 77.

#### Negations.

In negative sentences the negative particle He always comes immediately before the verb if the whole sentence is negatived, but before any particular word if that word only is negatived, e.g.

я не люблю́ его́ = I don't like him

я люблю́ не его́, а её = I like her, not him.

The object, when directly governed by the negative, is always in the genitive, e.g.

онъ не любить своей жены = he doesn't love his wife (but cf.  $\S$  81).

If a sentence contains any negative pronoun, adverb, or the conjunction ни — ни —, the negative particle не must be added; two negatives in Russian do not make an affirmative, e.g.

никого́ не вижу = I can see no one ничего́ не хочу́ = I don't want anything я ника́кь не ожида́ть — = I didn't in the least expect —

. There is not = нъть

which always requires the genitive, e.g.

нъть наде́жды = there is no hope дома никого́ нъть = there is nobody at home Is there not ? = нъть-ли? § 78. Subordinative Conjunctions.

пока

что́бы = in order that что́бы не = lest е́сли = if

если = yхотя́ = althoughкогда́ = when

= while

(for the use of these cf. §§ 102-5)

these are very commonly used in reporting facts, incidents, or speeches of doubtful authenticity or credibility, e.g.

онь какь бу́дто не хо́четь = I fancy he doesn't want to онь говори́ть бу́дто не хо́четь = he makes out he doesn't want to она бу́дто-бы нездоро́ва = she is supposed to be unwell.

Other particles used colloquially are

авось = may be небось = I expect

 $\frac{\text{MOTE}}{\text{де́скать}}$  = says he, said he (in quoting another's words)

which are all very commonly used by the people, but not much in society or literature.

The particle co is often affixed to the last word of any sentence, especially by servants and shopkeepers and subordinate officials when addressing employers, customers, or superiors, to indicate subservience; it is supposed to be an abbreviation of the words  $\mathbf{c}$  cygaps = sir and  $\mathbf{c}$  cygaps = sir cygaps = s

# THE PREPOSITIONS AND THE USE OF THE CASES WITH AND WITHOUT PREPOSITIONS

## § 79. Alphabetical list of prepositions:

безъ (безо)	= without	Gen.
близь (близь)	= near	Gen.
вдоль	= down	Gen.
витсто	= instead of	Gen.
внутри	= inside	Gen.

вив	= outside	Gen.
во́злѣ	= alongside	Gen.
вокругъ	= around	Gen.
вопреки	= against	Dat.
въ (во)	= in, into	Acc. Loc.
для	= for	Gen.
до	= up to	Gen.
за	= for, behind	Acc. Inst.
изъ	= out of	Gen.
изъ-за	= from out, from behind, because of	Gen.
изъ-подъ	= from under	Gen.
кромъ	= besides, except	Gen.
кругомъ	= around	Gen.
къ (ко)	=to	Dat.
ме́жду	= between	Gen. Inst.
ми́мо	= past	Gen.
на	= on, on to	Acc. Loc.
надъ (надо)	= above	Inst.
о (объ, обо)	= about, against	Acc. Loc.
о́коло	= around, about, near	Gen.
оть (ото)	= away from	Gen.
передъ (передо,		
предъ, предо)	= in front of	Acc. Inst.
по	= according to, along, till	Acc. Dat. Loc.
подлъ	= alongside of	Gen.
позади (позадь)	= behind	Gen.
посреди	= in the midst of	Gen.
послъ	= after	Gen.
подъ (подо)	= under	Acc. Inst.
при	= in the presence of, at, near	Loc.
про	= about	Acc.
противъ	= against	Gen.
ра́ди	= for the sake of	Gen.
сверхъ	= over	Gen.
сквозь	= through	Acc.
среди	= in the midst of	Gen.
сь (со)	= with, from	Acc. Gen. Inst.
7	= at the house of, near, in the posses-	Gen.
	sion of	
черезъ, чрезъ	= through, across, over	Acc.

§ 80.

The Nominative.

The nominative is used, as in other languages, for the subject and the predicate of the sentence, e.g.

я твой оте́ць  $=I\left[ am
ight] thy father$ 

though under certain conditions the predicate is in the instrumental, cf. § 84.

The nominative is used for the vocative, except in the three instances mentioned in § 39, e.g.

оте́цъ мой! = oh, my father!

3a + nom.

The nominative is always used after the preposition sa = for in phrases such as:

что́ это за кни́та? = what book is that? what sort of a book is that? (lit. = what this for book). Cf. German: was ist das für ein Buch?

though when the nom. is the same as the acc. it is not apparent that it is the nom., e.g.

что это за домъ? = what house is that?

§ 81.

The Genitive.

The genitive is used to denote:

(1) Possession, e.g.

домъ отца́ = the house of the father

though in this sense it is often replaced by the possessive adj., q.v.

- (2) Qualities, e.g. мальчикь хорошаго характера = a boy of good character человыкь пожилыхь лыть = a man of advanced years.
- (3) Partition, e. g. я хочý воды = I want (some) water хляба, пожалуйста! = (some) bread, please! кусокъ маса = a piece of meat

often with the meaning of a lot after impersonal verbs: накопилось писемъ = (a lot) of letters has accumulated.

(4) Quantity, e.g.
 стака́нъ ча́ю = a glass of tea (tea in Russia is usually drunk out of glasses)

 $\phi$ унть cáхару = a pound of sugar масса людей = a mass (crowd) of people

after adverbs of quantity, e. g.

мно́го дѣте́й = many children ма́ло друзе́й = few friends

немно́го (dim. немно́жко) мяса = a little meat

нъсколько лъть = some years

for the gen. in -y cf. § 39; for the other adverbs of quantity, and also for their adjectival forms and use, cf. § 74.

- (5) After the numerals 5-20, 25-30, 35-40, &c., cf. § 63.
- (6) Time in certain expressions:

 $cer\'{o}$ дня = to-day (lit. = of this day) перваго марта = on the first of March (= of the first).

(7) Comparison:

онъ слабъе меня = he [is] weaker than I.

= to desire (

(8) The genitive is always used after certain verbs:

бояться = to fear опасаться

избъгать = to avoia

= to wish (when an indefinite quantity is implied) жела́ть хотъть

искать = to seek просить = to beg

ждать to await, expect

ложилаться

= to cost (except in quotations of prices) сто́ить

= to deprive лишать

касаться = to touch, concern

держаться = to keep to.

# Examples:

я боюсь моря = I am afraid of the sea

хотите-ли вы вина = would you like some wine? but я хочу эту книгу (= acc.) = I want this book

желаю вамъ счастийваго пути !=I wish you a good journey! (желаю вамь) всего хорошаго (лучшаго)! (I wish you) everything good (best)! (A very common phrase on saying good-bye or ending a letter.)

я ищу́ кварти́ры = I am looking for a flat

жду вашего прівзда = I am awaiting your arrival

сто́ило его́ жи́зни = it cost his life (but in prices the nom. is used)

это касается вась = this concerns you

что касается меня = as far as I am concerned

#### notice the idiom:

ми́лости про́спиъ! = please come and see us (lit. = we crave mercy, a very common form of general invitation).

(9) After certain adjectives in the shorter or attributive form:

по́лонъ = full

ваго́нъ по́лонъ люде́й = the railreay-carriage is full of people

досто́инъ = worthy

она́ досто́йна его́ = she is worthy of him.

(10) In negative sentences the direct object is always in the genitive, e.g.

я не вижу ва́шего до́ма = I do not (= cannot) see your house онъ не сдышить моего́ го́лоса = he does not hear my voice я не зна́ю ва́шей сестры́ = I don't know your sister.

One meets with apparent exceptions to this rule, when the object is not directly governed by the negative, but they are only apparent, e.g.

я не могу́ чита́ть э́ту кни́гу = I cannot read this book but

я не читаль этой книги = I have not read this book.

The genitive is also used after

HETE = there is not (il n'y a pas)

не будеть = there will not be

не́-было = there was not

у меня́ нѣть де́негь = I have no money (lit. = to me there is no money)

ceróдня не будеть представленія = to-day there will be no performance

не бу́деть дождя́ = there will be no rain

не́-было ничего́ = there was nothing

не-было мороза = there was no frost.

(11) The genitive is used instead of the accusative in the singular and plural of masculine nouns ending in -ь, -ь, -й, and

in the plural of feminine nouns ending in -a, -a when they denote things that are or were animate, e.g.

я вижу солдата = I see a soldier онь знаеть отца = he knows the father я любию собать = I am fond of dogs

The old accusative which was the same as the nominative is used in a few phrases which became crystallized before the introduction of this use of the genitive. Cf. § 83.

(12) Notice the idioms:

до́ма = at home ма́ло того́ что . . . = far from . . .

The genitive is used after the following prepositions:

безъ = without

безъ меня = without me, in my absence

безо всего́ = without anything

notice безъ того, чтобы не сказать вамъ = without telling you

до = up to, till, before

до того = to that (sc. extent, = to such an extent)

до того времени = up to that time

до сихъ поръ =  $till\ now\ (cf.\ \S\ 68)$ 

до конца́ =up to the end (коне́цъ = end)

до рождества Христова = before the birth of Christ

до вась = before your time, before your arrival

notice the idioms:

MHÉ HÉ AO ŚTORO = I have no time (or no inclination) for this (sc. now)

имъ не́ до насъ = they have nothing to do with us (sc. they don't bother themselves about us)

до́-сыта = to one's full

изъ (изо before certain groups of consonants) = from out of, of я получилъ письмо́ изъ Москвы́ = I have received a letter from Moscow

онь прівхаль изь Англіп = he has arrived from England

изь воды = from out of the water

изъ зо́лота = of gold

изъ стекла́ = of glass

изо дня въ день = from day to day

it is always used in the phrase one of, e.g.

вь одномъ изъ большихъ домовъ = in one of the big houses... the gen. alone cannot be used in such cases; notice the idiom:

изъ-дому = from (out of) home.

The two following compound prepositions also take the genitive:

пзъ-за = from behind, from beyond, from out of, on account of

пзъ-за границы = from beyond the frontier, sc. from abroad

пзъ-за этого = from out of this, sc. on account of, as a result

of this

изъ-за мое́й боле́вяни = on account of, as a result of my illness изъ-подъ =  $from\ under$ 

изъ-подъ стола́ = from under the table.

y = near, at the house of, in the possession of, from.

As the verb to have (MNÉTE) is very seldom used in Russian, recourse has to be had to a paraphrase to express possession, temporary or permanent. This paraphrase consists of the preposition y followed by a noun or pronoun in the genitive and a part of the verb to be (GLITE); the part most commonly used is ecte = is, il y a, though of course by the part most commonly used is ecte = was, il y avait, il y a eu are also very frequent. It remains to be said that the word ecte is as often as not omitted, so that as a result the commonest way of saying in Russian:

I have	is	у меня́
thou hast	- 27	у тебя́
he or she has	"	у него, у ней
we have	77	у насъ
you have	"	у вась
they have	••	у нихъ

The full forms, with ecre added each time after the pronoun, are especially common in relating stories or whenever it is necessary to be particularly explicit, and in questions.

## Examples:

- у меня́ есть оте́цъ и мать, и два бра́та = I have a father and a mother and two brothers
- у нихъ много денегь = they have a lot of money

у насъ нътъ дътей = we have no children (нътъ is a contraction of не + есть)

есть у вась эта книта? = have you this book?

у меня насморкъ = I have a cold in the head

у него простуда = he has a cold in the chest

#### notice the idioms:

у вась хоро́шій видь = you look well (lit. you have a good aspect)

у него плохой видь = he looks ill.

If the word in the nominative comes before the preposition y and the word governed by it, it regains its original meaning of near, e.g.

собака у меня = the dog is near me.

The distinction is very subtle and must be closely observed, as it is one way of expressing the difference between the definite and the indefinite articles, e.g.

у меня́ ог у меня́ есть  $\left. \right\}$  соба́ка = I have a dog

while

coбáka у меня = the dog is near me (not necessarily my dog), i. e. I have the dog, the dog is in my possession, or at my house.

Again,

у него автомобиль = he has a motor-car

but

автомобиль у него = the motor car is at present in his possession, he has the motor car (probably not his own).

y of course often means at the house of, e.g.

они́ у нась = they [are] at our house

у насъ сегодня баль = [there is] a dance at our house to-day

я об'єдаю сего́дня у друз'єй = I am dining at the house of some friends to-day.

With the personal pronoun it also acquires the meaning of a possessive adjective, e.g.

у меня зубъ болять = my tooth aches, I have toothache домъ у насъ горять = our house is burning голова у ней болять = her head aches, she has a headache, кошелёкь у меня пропать = I have lost my purse,

In exclamatory remarks it acquires, coupled with the personal pronoun, something of the nature of the ethic dative, e.g.

она́ у мена́ хоро́шая ло́шадь! = that's a fine horse! (sc. of mine)

ты у меня́ краса́вица! = thou art a beauty! (not ironically, sc. you are mine, you are beautiful, and I'm proud of you) она у вась умнуща! = she's a clever-boots! (sc. your little

она́ у васъ у́мница! = she's a clever-boots! (sc. your little girl).

Curiously enough after certain verbs y can also mean from, e.g. онь отнять у меня деньги = he took away the money from me я взять у него книгу = I took the (or a) book from him.

сь (co before certain groups of consonants) = from, since, from off

съ головы́ до ногь = from head to foot (lit. feet)

съ утра́ до ве́чера = from morning till evening

сь января́ = since January сь пя́таго ма́я = from the 5th of May онь упа́ть сь кры́ши = he fell from the roof

сколько съ васъ взя́ли? = how much did they take off you?

(e.g. in shops, = the colloquial: how much did they rook you?)

сь меня́ взя́ли очень до́рого = they made me pay dear (lit. they took very dearly from me)

co дия́ на́ день = from day to day
co ску́ки = from tedium
cь отча́янія = from despair

съ вашего позволенія = with your permission.

Notice phrases such as:

сразу (also съ-разу) = at once

я сразу узнать его = I immediately recognized him

**с**но́ва = again

сы́знова = all over again

снача́ла = at first

which are compound adverbs formed by the preposition cs with the genitive of nouns and adjectives.

oth (oto before certain groups of consonants) = from, away from

онь убхаль оть нась = he has gone away from us (sc. left us) я получиль инсьмо оть брата = I have received a letter from (sc. my) brother

оть ралости = from jou

оть скуки = from tedium

ото всего́ этого = from (as a result of) all this

онъ умерь оть этого = he died from (of) this

... оть двадиатаго мая = . . . of the 20th of May

notice the idiom:

отъ роду = from birth.

Phrases are common in which both orn and no are used:

оть Петрограда до Москвы = from Petrograd to Moscow оть начала по конца = from beginning to end

оть времени до времени = from time to time.

There are a number of prepositions which take the genitive which were originally adverbs (some are still used as such), or cases of nouns with or without other prepositions, and having become crystallized are regularly used as prepositions:

близъ = near

близъ Москвы́ = near Moscow

о́коло = around, about, near

о́коло Ло́ндона = (1) not far from London, (2) around London

о́коло двадцати́ льть = about 20 years

\*kpyrómb = round, around

\*вокругь

кругомъ города = round the town

 $\stackrel{\text{подл'в}}{*_{\text{возл'в}}} = a longside of$ 

возяв меня = alongside of me подлв рвки = alongside the river

вдоль = the length of, down вполь  $\phi$ лицы = down the street

BHE = outside

вик комнаты = outside the room

\*внутри = inside

внутри комнаты = inside the room

BMECTO = instead ofBMÉCTO TOTÓ = instead of that сверхъ = over = in addition to that сверхъ того сверхъ шубы = over (his) fur coat (сверхесте́ственный = supernatural)среди́ (\*посреди́) = in the middle of среди улицы = in the middle of the street (Средизе́мное мо́ре = the Mediterranean) \*позапи = behind позади́ меня́ = behind me \*послъ = after пость объда = after dinner. \*mémo = past мимо дома = past the house (cf. мимоходомъ = in passing) для = forдля́ чего́? = what for? онь сдылать это иля меня =  $he\ did\ this\ for\ me$ кром' = besides кром'в этого = besides this кро́м'в того́ = besides that páди = for the sake of ра́ди Bora! = for God's sake противъ = against, opposite противъ непрінтеля = against the enemy противъ холе́ры = against cholera противъ насъ = (1) against us, (2) opposite us между = between (but more commonly with the inst.).

Those marked with an asterisk can be used as adverbs as well.

§ 82. The Dative is used after a number of verbs without any preposition:

дать давать} = to give

я даль ей де́ньги = I gave her the money онь даль мнв сло́во = he gave me [his] word

върить = to believe

я вамъ върю = I believe you (but N.B. въровать въ Бо́га

= to believe in God)

удивляться = to be astonished (at)

я удивляюсь этому = I am astonished at this

радоваться = to rejoice (at)

мы радуемся вашему прівзду = we rejoice at your arrival

кланяться = to greet (lit, = to bow to)

кланяюсь всвыь = greetings to all

я учусь русскому языку = I am learning Russian

см'вяться = to laugh (at)

чему́ вы смъётесь? = what are you laughing at?

(N.B. to laugh at some one = c. hand + inst.)

měmáte = to hinder

я вамъ не мѣша́ю? = I am not in your way?

моли́ться = to pray to

молюсь Вогу = I am praying to God

sabидовать = to envy

завидую вамъ = I envy you

жа́ловаться = to complain

онъ жалуется мн $\dot{\mathbf{b}}$  на вась = he complains to me of you грозить = to threaten

грозить намь быда = misfortune is threatening us

MCTHTL = to take vengeance on

учить (+acc. and dat.) = to teach

чему онь вась учить? = what is he teaching you?

говорить, сказать = to tell

скажите ми $\dot{\mathbf{b}} = tell\ me$ 

подражать = to imitate

напоминать, напомнить = to remind

напомните мнв объ этомъ = remind me about this

это мнв напоминаеть его = this reminds me of him

писать = to write (but also with къ, cf. p. 131)

я пишу́ ему́ письмо́ = I am writing him a letter

подарить = to give, to present; купить = to buy, and others.

Also after impersonal verbs:

это мнв нравится = this pleases me, sc. I like this

миx хочется = I want to

мнв пить хочется = I am thirsty (= I want to drink. There is no adjective thirsty in Russian)

кажется = it seems

мнѣ кажется = it seems to me, sc. I think мнѣ не сийтся = I cannot sleep мнѣ нездоро́вится = I am unwell.

Notice the curious expression:

онъ приходится мн $\mathfrak{B}$  (e.g.) дя́дей (inst.) = he is my (e.g.) uncle which is used to describe relationships usually of the remoter kind (N.B. приходится usually = one has to +inf.).

The dative is also used in the following common expressions:

можно мев? = may I? вамъ невозможно = you may not вамъ нельзя́ = you must not

пора́ намъ! =it is time for us (sc. to go) я радъ ва́шему пріваду =I am glad at your arrival.

After adverbs expressing pleasure, displeasure, heat, cold, &c., e.g.

 уго́дно-ли вамъ ?
 = would you like . . . . ?

 какъ вамъ уго́дно
 = just as you like

 мнѣ хо́лодно
 = I am cold

 мнѣ тепло́
 = I am warm

 мнѣ жа́рко
 = I am hot

мнѣ непрія́тно + inf. = it is unpleasant to me to . . . . = I am sorry.

Also in expressing age:

сколько вамь льть? = how old are you? (lit. = how many to you of years?)

мнь двадцать льть = I am twenty

and in a few expressions such as:

э́та кни́га вамъ= this book is for youэ́то мнѣ= this is for me

цъна этимъ мъстамъ = the price of these places
онъ намъ сосъдъ = he is our neighbour
онъ мнъ врагъ = he is an enemy of mine
это не пришло мнъ въ голову = it did not enter my head.

The dative is also used with the infinitive to express is to, has got to, e.g.

кому написать это письмо́? = who is to write this letter? Этому не быть = this is not to be.

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Notice the idioms:
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такъ себ $\acute{\mathbf{B}} = fairly$ 

e.g.

какъ это вамъ нра́вится? такъ себѣ! = how do you like that?

и тому́ подобное = and so on (abbr. и т. п. = &c.) (lit. and to that similar: sometimes also in plur.)
помой = homewards, [to] home.

The dative is used after the following prepositions:

къ (ко before certain groups of consonants) = to

я пришёль къ вамъ = I have come to you

приходите къ намъ = come to us, sc. come and see us

приходите ко мнв = come and see me

у меня къ вамъ просьба = I have a favour to ask you

къ ве́черу = towards evening

къ о́сени = towards autumn, by the autumn

къ началу октября́ = by the beginning of October къ концу́ ноября́ = by the end of November къ пе́рвому а́вгуста = by the first of August

къ пяти́ часа́мъ = by five o'clock.

Notice the idioms:

къ сожаль́нію = unfortunately, to my regret

къ несчастію = unfortunately къ моему́ удивле́нію = to my surprise

это вамъ къ лицу = that suits you (of clothes), (lit. =

to you to the face)

лицо́мъ къ лицу́ = face to face къ како́й ста́ти? = to what purpose?

RCTATM = by the by, that reminds me.

вопреки = against, in spite of вопреки приличіямь = in defiance of decorum

no = along, over, according to

по ўлицѣ = along the street по-морю = over the sea, by sea

по-мо́ему от но моему́ мнт́нію = in my opinion

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почему́? = why ? (= on what grounds?)
потому́ что
(abb, п.т.ч.) = because
по пре́жнему = as formerly
по но́вому сти́лю = according to new, old style
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(in dating letters, the Russian (Julian) calendar being thirteen days behind ours (Gregorian); the abbreviations are: c.c., n.c.).

Notice the very common idioms:

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по-тихо́ньку = quietly, on the sly
по-немно́жку = gradually, little by little
по желѣзной доро́гѣ = by rail
по слу́чаю + gen. = on the occasion of . . .
по нево́лѣ = perforce
по мо́єй ча́сти = in my line, in my department (lit. part)
я уда́риль его́ по головѣ = I hit him on the head
я уда́риль его́ по плеча́мь = I hit him on the shoulders
по возвы́шеннымь цѣнамь = at raised prices (sc. higher than usual).
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#### also distributively:

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по ночамь = at night (sc. frequently)
по утрамь = in the morning (sc. every morning)
по Воскресе́ніямь = on Sundays, every Sunday
онь даль всёмь намь по я́блоку = he gave us all an apple each
по пяти́ рубле́й (dat. + gen. pl.) = at five roubles.
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# § 83. The Accusative is used

 To denote the object of a transitive verb, e. g. я люблю́ свою́ ро́дину = I love my country.

It has already been remarked that the acc. sing. and plur. of masculine nouns ending in -a, -a, and -h, and the acc. plur. of feminine nouns ending in -a, -a is the same in form as the gen. sing. and plur. in the case of animate, and the same as the nominative in the case of inanimate nouns.

The same rule applies to all adjectives and to all the pronouns except the personal pronouns and kto = ioho; in these the acc. is always the same as the gen, even the acc. of the neuter pronoun

оно́ = it being the same, not as the nom. but as the gen., viz. eró.

It must be observed, however, that this was not always so; the old acc. was invariably the same as the nom., and this is still to be seen in a few expressions which became crystallized before the gen. came to be used for the acc. in the case of animate things; such phrases, amongst others, are:

выйти замужь = to marry

(N.B. of the woman only; the phrase literally means to go out behind a man or a husband)

eró произведи въ полковники = they have promoted him to be a colonel (lit. into the colonels)

BBATE BE FÓCTH = to invite (lit. = to call into guests, sc. as quests)

поступить въ солдаты = to enlist.

(2) To express duration of time and distance:

э́ту зи́му = this winter

цёлое дёто = the whole summer
прошлую о́сень = last autumn
бу́дущую весну́ = next spring
ода́нь годь = (for) one year

кру́глый годь = the whole year round цъ́ную недъ́лю = (for) a whole week

мы прошли двѣ версты́ (acc. + gen. sing., cf. § 61) = we have walked two versts.

(3) After the word жаль = pity, e.g.

мнѣ жаль вашу сестру = I am sorry for your sister

ему́ жаль её = he is sorry for her мнь его́ жаль = I am sorry for him.

The accusative is used after the following prepositions:

въ (во before certain groups of consonants) = into

я ѣду въ Россію = I am travelling to Russia я ѣду въ Ло́ндовъ = I am travelling to London

въ Кры́мъ = to the Crimea

онъ вощёль въ комнату = he came into the room.

## Notice the following idiomatic uses:

въ понелъльникъ = on Monday во вторникъ = on Tuesday въ день моего рожденія = on my birthday въ два часа́ = at two o'clock разъ въ день = once a day два раза въ недълю = twice a week во что-бы то ни стало = cost what it may = costing two roubles въ два рубля въ рубль = at one rouble въ пва этажа = two stories (high)въ тысячу разъ лучше = a thousand times better въ старину = in the old days во-время = in time во время + gen. = during (the time of) въ пору = it is the right size мить не въ пору = it doesn't fit me вамъ въ пору = it fits you въ гору

ВБ го́ру = up-hill.

(Сб. вверхь = upwards = downwards.)

# Notice the common expressions:

втеченіе + gen. (also written въ теченіе) = in the course of всябдствіе этого (also въ с . . .) = as a result of this въ продолженіе прилаго года = for a whole year.

# sa = behind, beyond, for, by

я э́ду за грани́цу = I am going abroad (lit. beyond the frontier)

онь ноэ́халь за́-городь = he has gone out of town

онь взяль меня́ за́ руку = he took me by the hand

ся́демь за столь = let us sit down to table

ей за́-пятьдесять лёть = she is more than 50.

## Always after the following verbs:

 (по) благодари́ть
 = to thank

 купи́ть
 = to buy

 продать
 = to sell

 моляться
 = to pray

and expressions such as praying for, fighting for, e.g.

я благодарю́ вась за ва́ше письмо́ = I thank you for your letter я купи́ль э́то за ру́бль = I bought this for a rouble онъ мнѣ продаль ло́шадь за пять соть рубле́й = he sold me a horse for 500 roubles

моли́тесь за меня́ = pray for me

жизнь за царя́ = (one's) life for the tsar

за Англича́нъ = for (sc. in favour of) the English.

Notice the idioms:

за кого вы меня принимаете? = whom do you take me for?

выходить за . . . = to marry

она́ вы́шла за нъ́мца = she married a German за кого́ она вышла? = whom did she marry?

For the phrase выйти замужъ cf. p. 133.

Also in certain expressions of time and distance:

она умерла́ за́ два часа́ до ва́шего прів́зда = she died two hours before your arrival

мы живёмъ за́ пять вёрсть оть станціи = we live five versts from the station

за ца́рствованіе Алекса́ндра второ́го = in the reign of Alexander II

за́ льто = in the course of the summer (sc. when it is over).

Notice the idioms:

за хвость, за́ голову = by the tail, by the head за́-руку, за́-ногу = by the hand, by the leg or foot

за́-руку, за́-ногу = by the hand, by the saoдно́ = in concert with sa то́ = on the other hand.

 $\mathbf{H}\mathbf{a} = on to$ 

положите книгу на столь = put the book on the table
онь лёгь на-бокь = he lay down on his side
на кольни = on to (one's) knees
на землю = on to the ground.

```
Notice the following idiomatic uses:
                             = for the night
    на-ночь
    онь прівхаль на цільй місяць = he has come for a whole month
    дня на-два
                             = for about two days
                             = (on) the next day
    на другой день
    на следующій разь (ог)
                             = for next time
       на другой р.)
                             = up-hill
    на-гору
                             = to the seaside
    на-берегь моря
                             = to travel to the Caucasus
     Вхать на Кавказъ
     на-два рубля дороже
                             = dearer by two roubles
    на пятьдесять копъекъ дешевле = cheaper by 50 kopeks
                             = present (sc. to be present), in cash
     на лицо
                             = with great effort
     на силу
     на-ново
                             = a fresh
     на́-скоро = quickly (sc. without taking much time or trouble)
     положиться)
                             = to have confidence in any one
                 на кого
     надъяться
     ку́шайте на здоро́віе! = eat it to your health (a common phrase
       when showing hospitality)
                             = to the North
     на сѣверъ
                             = to the South
     HA WITS
     на востокъ
                             = to the East
                             = to the West
     на запалъ
                             = that is like you (of a portrait)
     это похоже на васъ
     это ни на что не похоже = that is not like anything (sc. un-
       utterably bad, abominable)
     на память
                              = from memory
     на-показъ
                              = for show
     на-верхъ
                              = upstairs (sc. motion up)
     налѣво
                              = to the left
     направо
                              = to the right
     наконецъ
                              = at last
     наизусть
                             = by heart (e.g. recitations, &c.)
 o (before vowels объ) = about, against
     объ эту пору
                              = about this time
     я ушибся о столь
                              = I have hurt myself against the table
      я опёрся о колонну
                              = I leant agaînst a column
      рука объ руку
                              = arm in arm
```

no = till

оть перваго (sc. числа́) по тридцать-первое (sc. число́) января́ = from Jan. 1st-31st

по колѣни въ водѣ

= up to the knees in the water.

Notice the idioms:

по ту́ сто́рону = (over on) that side (of the river)

по правую руку = on the right-hand side по лъвую руку = on the left-hand side.

For the use of no + acc. in expression of money values, cf. § 69.

подъ = under

положите эту подущку себѣ подъ-голову =  $put this \ pillow \ under your \ head$ 

подъ-руку (взять кого́) = to take some one by the arm

nóдъ-гору = down-hill.

mpo = concerning

про кого вы говорите? = about whom are you talking?

Notice the idiom:

про себя́ = to oneself

e.g. она смъншсь про себа = they were laughing to themselves (про себа) = (aside).

ckbo3b = through

ви́дно сквозь дымь = visible through the smoke

CKBO35 NBC5 = through the forest, of anything that is visible through the trees of the forest

while че́резъ ль́сь = through the forest, e.g. walking through the forest.

съ (co before certain groups of consonants) = about, like

онъ съ меня́ (sc. ро́стомъ) = he is (as big) as me (sc. in growth)

съ недъ́дю = about a week,

че́резь (от чрезь) = through, across, via, over

че́резъ забо́ръ= over the fenceче́резъ во́ду= through the waterче́резъ во́здухъ= through the airче́резъ лѣсъ= through the forest

че́резъ ръ́ку́ = across the river, or through the river (sc. motion across)

че́резъ Неву́ = across the Neva

че́резъ Москву́ = across, through, or via Moscow че́резъ кого́? = through whom? (sc. by whose agency?).

In expressions of time:

че́резъ поль-часа́ = in half an hour's time

че́резъ недѣ́лю = in a week.

It also can mean every other:

че́резъ чась = in an hour's time, or every other hour че́резъ день = every other day.

#### The Instrumental.

§ 84. The instrumental case denotes primarily, as its name implies, the instrument or agent by which anything is done, e.g.

писать карандашомъ = to write with a pencil

это письмо написано мной = this letter [was] written by me

руками = with [one's] hands ногой = with [one's] foot, or leg.

It denotes manner:

парохо́домъ = by steamer

я ́ѣду въ Россію́ парохо́домъ = I am travelling to Russia by steamer

сухимъ путёмъ = overland (lit. by dry way)

я по $\check{}$ ду сухимъ путёмъ  $= I \ shall \ go \ overland$ 

 мо́ремъ
 = by sea

 толной
 = in a crowd

 стрѣдой
 = like an arrow

x by (sc. through) the forest

дорожкой = by the path полемъ = by the field

наложеннымъ платежёмъ = pay on delivery.

Notice the idioms:

ъхать máromь = to drive (or ride) at walking-pace, 'au pas'

идти́ пѣшко́мъ = to go on foot.

and especially:

EXATE BEDNOME = to ride (sc. on horseback); BEDNE = top, and the phrase literally means to travel as the top (sc. the upper part).

The phrase ката́ться верхо́мь, lit. = to roll along as the top is also used; these two phrases are the only means of saying to ride in Russian. Notice also:

ря́домъ = side by side гусько́мъ = in single file таки́мъ путёмъ = in this way

какимъ образомъ? = in what manner, how?

какимъ способомъ? = by what means?

такимъ образомъ = in this (lit. such) manner, like that, and often means if you do this . . . .

посре́дствомъ + gen. = by means of

какимъ or которымъ повздомъ? = by which or what train?

мѣста́ми = in places

большею частью = for the most part
разомъ = all at once, all together
онтомъ, гуртомъ = (sell by) wholesale
цълькомъ = wholly, completely, all

диновы къ лицу́ = face to face
однимъ словомъ = in one word
— in other words

други́ми слова́ми = in other words eró слова́ми = in his words

само-собой = of its own accord, automatically

само́ собою разумъ́ется = cela se comprend

она́ хороша́ собо́й = she is good-looking (here the собо́й merely amplifies the sentence; if anything it emphasizes the compliment, but is really untranslatable in English)

во́лей-нево́лей = willy-nilly.

In certain expressions of the time of day and the seasons:

 весной
 = in the spring

 я́втомь
 = in the summer

 осенью
 = in the autumn

 зимой
 = in the vinter

(when preceded by the demonstrative pronoun always use the acc., cf. § 83)

ýтромъ = in the morning вечеромъ = in the evening днёмь  $= by \ day$ , and also very frequently  $= in \ the \ afternoon$  ночью  $= by \ night$ .

N.B. (1) this morning is сего́дня у́тромъ (lit. = to-day in the morning)

(2) this evening is сего́дня ве́черомъ (lit. = to-day in the evening), similarly за́втра у́тромъ = to-morrow morning, &c.

It is used in expressions such as:

чёмъ богаты, тъмъ и рады = what we are rich in, to that you are welcome (lit. = with that we are glad, so. that we will gladly give).

It denotes origin:

ро́домъ Англичанинъ = by birth an Englishman.

It is used in some expressions of measurement:

ръка́ ширино́й въ поль-версты́ = a river about half a verst wide (in width)

гора́ въ ты́сячу фу́товъ вышино́й = a hill 1000 feet in height

also глубиной = in depth, длиной = in length.

In comparison of measures, e.g.

я го́домъ ста́рше eró = I an older than he by a year though these phrases are more commonly expressed by на +асс. (cf. § 83) от въ + разъ (cf. §§ 65, 83)

тъмъ лучше = all the better тъмъ не ме́нъе = nevertheless тъмъ бо́лъе = all the more.

The instrumental is always used after certain verbs:

дюбоваться = to admire (but only literally to gaze at)

пользуюсь этимъ случаемъ  $+\inf$ . = I am taking advantage of this occasion to . . .

гордиться = to be proud of

я горжу́сь ва́ми = I am proud of you дорожи́ть = to value highly

же́ртвовать поже́ртвовать } = to sacrifice

онь пожертвоваль всёмь своимь состояниемь = he sacrificed the whole of his fortune

владъть = to rule, command

Англія владъ́еть Йндіей = England rules India

онъ хорошо владеть русскимь языкомъ = he has a good command of the Russian language

кома́ндовать = to be in command over (troops, &c.)

руководить = to lead

управлять = to manage

онь управля́оть моймь имѣніемь = he manages my property завѣнывать = to look after

она зав'ядуеть домомь — she looks after the house править — to drive

. онъ хорошо́ править лошадьми́ = he drives a carriage (lit. horses) very well.

дышать = to breathe

па́хнуть = to smell (intrans.)

чьмь это пахнеть? = what does this smell of?

A very common and at first sight puzzling use of the instrumental is that called *predicative*. The predicate is put in the instrumental instead of in the nominative whenever any temporary or hypothetical condition is to be indicated, e.g.

когда я быль мальчикомь = when I was a boy

онъ будеть великимъ человѣкомъ = he is going to be a great man

лежание у него не было ни необходимостью ни случайностью — tying down was in his case neither a necessity nor an accident

послать . . . . заказнымь = to send . . . registered.

The predicative instrumental is used after the following verbs:

дѣлаться становиться = to become

называться = to be called

BBATh = to call

меня́ зовуть Ива́номь = they call me Ivan, i.e. my name is Ivan

служить = to serve as

это служило мн $\upbeta$  предлогом $\upbeta$  = this served me as an excuse считаться = to be considered

это счита́ется хоро́нымъ жа́лованіемъ = that is considered good pay

это счита́ется невѣжливымъ = that is considered rude

слыть = to have the reputation

 родиться
 = to be born

 казаться
 = to seem

ды́о каза́лось серьёзнымь = the matter seemed serious притвораться = to pretend to be.

The instrumental is used after the following prepositions:

3a = behind, for (to get something)

за грани́цей = abroad (lit. = beyond the frontier)

за столо́мъ = at table

за об'вдомъ  $= at \ dinner$  за-городомъ  $= out \ of \ town$ 

за-городомъ = out of coon я пришель за деньгами = I have come for the money надо послать за докторомъ = (we) must send for the doctor

зачёмь? = why? (sc. with what object?) за тёмь чтобы + inf. = in order to . . .

заты́= after that, then.

It is always used of a woman being married (cf. за+acc., § 83): она́ за́мужемь = she is married

за къмъ она замужемъ? = to whom is she married?

между = between (also but less often with gen.)

между Петроградомъ и Москвой = between Petrograd and Moscow

между нами = between us (both of concrete objects and of emotions), amongst us между прочимь = amongst other things.

Notice the idioms:

And the second s

между тыть = meanwhile, cependant.

надь (надо before certain groups of consonants) = above надь головой = above (my) head надо мной = above me (only literally)

пе́редь (передо before certain groups of consonants) = before, in front of

передъ домомъ = in front of the house

передо мной = in front of me

пе́редь этимь = before this (temporal)

передъ объдомъ = before dinner

передъ твмъ какъ + inf. = before + verb (e.g. going).

подъ (подо before certain groups of consonants) = under, near

подъ землёй = underground

подо мной = under me

подъ этимъ условіемъ = on this condition

подъ какимъ предлогомъ? = under what pretext?

подъ Москвой = near Moscow

подъ Ло́ндономъ = near London.

съ (co before certain groups of consonants) = with

co мной = with me

съ большимъ удовольствіемъ = with great pleasure

сь наслажие́ніемь = with relish

съ трудо́мъ = with difficulty

со временемъ = in course of time

СЪ КЪМЪ ВЫ ГОВОРИ́ЛИ? = with whom were you talking?

сь какой цѣлью? = with what object?

съ Бо́гомъ! = good-bye! (lit. with God)

Bórь сь німи! = never mind them! (lit. God be with them).

§ 85. The Locative is only used with prepositions, hence it is sometimes called the prepositional case.

The locative is used with the following prepositions:-

въ (во before certain groups of consonants) = in

въ Москвъ = іп Моссою

во мив = іп те

во Франціи = in France

въ Крыму́ = in the Crimea (cf. § 39, Obs. 7)

въ концѣ = at the end

въ нача́ль = at the beginning

BO CHÉ = in one's sleep or dreams.

### Notice the idioms:

въ концъ́-концо́въ = at long last, finally въ самомъ дъ́лъ = in very fact.

### In certain expressions of time:

въ сабдующемъ году́ = the following year въ тако́мъ-то году́ = such and such a year въ пе́рвомъ часу́ = between 12 and 1 во второ́мъ часу́ = between 1 and 2.

### For other similar expressions, cf. § 68.

вта́йнѣ = secretly впослѣ́дствін = subsequently

вполнѣ = completely, thoroughly.

#### Ha = on

на столѣ = on the table

на берегу́ мо́ря = on the sea-shore, at the seaside

на боку́ = on (one's) side на со́лнцѣ = in the sun на дворѣ = in the yard

## (this is the commonest way of saying out of doors)

на льдý = on the ice (fr. лёдъ)

Ha Moctý = on the bridge

на службъ = in service (sc. Government service)

на не́ов = in heaven, in the sky на све́жемъ во́здухв = in the fresh air на све́втв = in the world на свободв = at liberty.

### Notice the idioms:

на своёмъ вѣку́ = in one's time, in one's life

наяву́  $= in \ reality$  (as opposed to  $in \ one$ 's sleep)

на лошадя́хъ = by carriage, driving (lit. = on horses)

на-единъ = alone, in solitude.

## It is used of men marrying, after the verb жениться = to marry:

онъ жени́лся на ру́сской = he married a Russian на комъ онъ жена́ть? = to whom is he married?

## Notice the compound adverb:

o (объ before vowels and often before consonants also; обо before certain groups of consonants) = concerning

обо мн $\dot{\mathbf{b}} = about me$ 

o or объ чёмъ вы говори́ян? = what were you talking about?

обо всёмъ = about everything.

## In certain expressions of number:

о двухъ концахъ = with two ends.

no = after

по прівздв = on or after arrival по нашемь возвращенім = on our return.

### Notice the idioms:

скучать по родинь = to be home-sick (for one's country) по чёмь? = at what price? по чёмь аршинь? = how much a yard? cf. § 69.

upu = in the presence of, in the time of, near
upu mub = in my presence, in my time, by me, near me,

при дворѣ = at court

on me

при Екатеры́нъ Ведикой = in the time of Catherine the Great

при битв'в подъ Ле́йпцигомъ = at the battle of (lit. near, under) Leipzig.

## Notice the idioms:

при чёмь = in addition to which, besides which

при томъ = besides that

при всёмъ томъ = in addition to all that, in spite of all that при всёмъ моёмъ стара́ніи = in spite of all my efforts.

### THE VERB

§ 86. The Russian verb consists of the following parts:

Present
Past
Future
Conditional

Imperative
Infinitive

Present Gerund
Past Gerund
Past Participle
Past Participle
Present Participle
Present Participle
Past Participle
Past Participle
Past Participle

The present is the only tense which has personal endings. The past is a tense only in name; in reality it is a participle whose endings vary not according to person, but according to number and gender. The future in form is exactly the same as the present. The conditional in form is exactly the same as the past. There is no subjunctive. There is no passive of any part of the verb except the participles, and if anything is expressed in the passive, it must be done by means of participles or of the reflexive verb (cf. § 110).

Use of the Personal Pronouns with the Verb.

The personal pronouns:

я = I
ты = thou
онь, она, оно = he, she, it
мы = vve
вы = you
оно (М. N.), онь (F.) = they

are used in Russian with the verbs very much as in English; in certain cases they are, however, omitted altogether, e.g. when the verb is used, as it frequently is, in an answer in reply to a question instead of  $\pi$  (= yes) or HETA (= no), e.g.:

Question: быны-и вы у нихь вчеры? = did you go to see them yesterday? (lit. were you at their house?)

Answer: 6 MJB = I did (lit. I was)

Question: будете-ли вы у него сегодня? = will you go to see him to-day?

Answer:  $6\dot{y}_{Ay} = I shall$ 

Question: можете-ли вы сдблать это для меня ? = can you do this for me?

Answer: morý = I can.

The pronoun one is comparatively rarely used; its place is often taken by ero, e.g.

это было очень давно = it was a very long time ago

or it is omitted altogether, e.g.

тепло сегодня = it is warm to-day.

When it is used it often acquires the meaning of the thing we were referring to or what you were talking about, e.g.

оно́, коне́чно, непрія́тно = (a thing like) that (sc. which we were discussing) is, of course, unpleasant.

§ 87.

### The Present.

#### REGULAR VERBS.

In Old Bulgarian the verbs are divided into five classes, and for etymological purposes Russian verbs can be similarly treated. For practical purposes, however, it is best to divide the verbs into only two classes, not according to the infinitive, but according to the endings of the present. The few irregular verbs which there are, which in Old Bulgarian form the fifth class, are in Russian not sufficiently numerous to form a class by themselves, but as they are very important they are given in full in a separate paragraph. For the regular verbs there are two sets of personal endings, which are added to the verb-stem sometimes directly,

sometimes with a vowel (-a-, -s-, -b-, -y-, -ro-) or a consonant (-n-) inserted between stem and ending.

The first difficulty to be faced is the fact that though every present may be put in one class or the other, the infinitives are much more difficult to classify, because verbs having various infinitive endings have identical present endings, and others having identical infinitive endings have different present endings. In the lists of verbs given they are arranged alphabetically according to the last letter of the present stem as seen in the 3rd pers. plur., those ending in consonants + y first, those ending in vowels + 10 later.

Another difficulty is that the palatal qualities of the vowels in the personal endings have in many cases affected the last consonant of the stem, so that the present stem differs from the infinitive stem. The present endings of the two main classes of Russian verbs are the following:

	I.	II.
(1	-у (ог -ю) -ешь <sup>1</sup> -еть	-10 (or -y)
Sing. 2	-ешь <sup>1</sup>	-ишь
(3	-etl	-нть
(1	-емъ	-имъ
Plur. 2	-ете	-ито
3	-емъ -ете -уть (ог -ють)	-ять (or -ать) <sup>2</sup>

Class I comprises all the verbs contained in the first three classes in Old Bulgarian; in that language the endings of class I were 2nd sing. -GIIII, 3rd sing. -GIIII (-e/i, -et, cf. § 36), &c., of class II -HGIIII, -Jet, -jet); in Russian these appear respectively as -jef, -jet, -njef, -njet, and -jef, -jet, i.e. the 2nd and 3rd sing. and 1st and 2nd pl. all begin with -je (pron. -ye). Of the verbs which originally belonged to class I, those whose stems end in r or r change these letters to r and r before the palatal vowels of the endings -ef, -jef, &c., but retain the r and r before the -y of the 1st sing. and 3rd plur. The

<sup>2</sup> When unaccented these endings (3rd plur. of class II) are generally pronounced -work (or -ytk).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> When the accent falls on the personal ending the 2nd and 3rd sing. and 1st and 2nd pl. of class I are pronounced: -ёшь (cf. § 14), -ёть, -ёть, -ёте.

stems of the verbs which insert -H- between the stem and the personal ending undergo no change. Of the verbs which originally belonged to class III, those whose stems end in vowels take the endings -10, -111, -

In class II the first person singular is often disguised as -y (i.e. apparently the same as in class I); the reason is that the -m of the 1st sing. changes final  $\kappa$  and  $\tau$  of the stem into  $\tau$  or  $\tau$ , final  $\tau$ ,  $\tau$ , and  $\tau$  into  $\tau$ , and final  $\tau$  and  $\tau$  into  $\tau$ . It also becomes  $\tau$  when the stem itself ends in  $\tau$ ,  $\tau$ , or  $\tau$ . Similarly the  $\tau$  of the 3rd plur. becomes a when the stem ends in  $\tau$ ,  $\tau$ , or  $\tau$ . In class II those stems which end in  $\tau$ ,  $\tau$ , and  $\tau$  insert  $\tau$  before the -m of the 1st sing.

Another difficulty which the beginner has to face is that of the prepositions in composition with the verbs. Verbs compounded with a preposition (i.e. preceded by it) are infinitely more numerous than those without, and this fact makes the beginner think at first sight that the language possesses an infinitely larger number of verbs than it really does. When reading Russian the beginner should always try and see the root or stem of each verb and cut off the preposition or prepositions which precede it. For this purpose it is important to learn the prepositions given in §§ 79-85, and also to compare them with those given in dealing with prepositions in composition with verbs. As the prepositions always have an especial effect on the meaning of each verb, only simple verbs have been given in the following lists, the alteration in meaning effected by the various prepositions being discussed later. Many of the verbs given in these lists are extremely uncommon, others not used in their simple form; the student should not attempt to learn the lists, but only use them for reference. The list of the verbs under class I contains all the difficult primary verbs which belong to this class; otherwise the lists given are very far from being exhaustive; they are merely intended to be representative. The verbs are arranged alphabetically according to the last letter of the present stem, those ending in a consonant + y first, those ending in a consonant + 10 next, and lastly those ending in a vowel + 10. Only the 1st and 2nd persons sing, and the infinitive are given. In class I, whenever the 1st sing, ends in -y the 3rd pl. ends in -yr5, when the 1st sing, ends in -10 the 3rd pl. ends in -10 In both classes, on whichever syllable the accent is in the 2nd sing, that syllable retains it throughout. Those verbs preceded by a hyphen are only used in composition, and examples of them compounded with prepositions are given below. All those verbs marked with F are perfective and their presents always have future meaning, cf. § 101:

§ 88	cı	ASS I.
Exa	mples of presents:	
	(Inf. мочь)	(Inf. идти́ <sup>1</sup> )
	$mor\hat{y} = I can$	ид $\hat{y} = I$ am going (sc. on foot)
	можешь	идёшь
	можеть	идёть
	можемъ	идёмъ
	можете	идёте
	могуть	идуть
	(Inf. тяну́ть)	(Inf. брать)
	тян $\dot{y} = I$ am pulling	$\operatorname{dep} \dot{y} = I \ take, \ I \ am \ taking$
	тя́нешь	берёшь
	тя́неть	берёть
	тинемъ	берёмъ
	тинете .	берёте
	тя́нуть	беру́ть
	(Inf. писать)	(Inf. слать)
	пишý = I write, I am writi	$mg$ шлю $^2 = I$ am sending
	ийшешь	шлёшь
	пишеть	шлёть
	пишемъ	шлёмъ
	пишете	шлёте
0.00	námyra *	шлють

1 Also spelt итти.

In the case of this verb the palatal quality of the personal endings has affected the c of the stem through the z.

(Inf. дѣла́ть)	(Inf. nate)
д	пью = $I$ drink, $I$ am drinking
дѣлаешь	пьёшь
дъ́лаеть	пьёть
дилаемъ	пьёмъ
дѣлаете	пьёте
дълають	пьють

Thus are conjugated the presents of the following verbs and others:

Pr	esent.	$I_{i}$	nfinitive.
<b>-6+</b>			
гребу	гребёшь	грести	row
скреб <b>ў</b>	скребёшь	скрести	scrape
-шибу́ <sup>1</sup>	-шибёшь F	-шибить	(hit)
•в+			
реву́	ревёшь	ревѣть	roar
живу	живёшь	чтиж	live
30вý	зовёшь	звать	call
рву́	ашэве	рвать	tear
плыву	плывёшь	плыть	float
слыву́	слывёшь	слыть	be renowned as
-r+	$[\mathbf{x} = \mathbf{r} + (\mathbf{j})\mathbf{e}]$		
берегу	бережёнь	бере́чь	keep
стерегу	стережёшь	стере́чь	guard
жгу	жжёшь²	жечь	burn (trans.)
стригу	стрижёшь	стричь	shear .
лгу	лжёшь	лгать	prevaricate
мог <del>у́</del>	можешь	АРОМ	be able
бъ́гу́ (cf. § 89)		бъжать	run
ля́гу	ля́жешь F	лечь	lie down
-npяrý <sup>3</sup>	-пряжёшь <b>F</b>	-прячь	(harness)
д+			
кладу́	кладёшь	класть	put
паду́	падёшь <b>F</b>	пасть	fall

<sup>1</sup> e.g. ушнбить = to bruise. 3 e.g. запрячь = to harness.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Or жгёшь.

$P_{i}$	esent.	Infi	nitive.
краду	крадёшь	красть	stea <b>l</b>
веду	ведёшь	вести	lead
бреду	бредёшь	брести	wander
неду	ждёшь	ждать	(a)wait
иду́	идёшь	идти	go (sc. on foot)
буду	бу́дешь	быть	be
блюду́	блюдёшь	блюсти	watch
ъ́ду (сf. § 89)	<b>É</b> дешь	Тхать	ride, drive
пряду́	прядёшь	прясть	spin
ся́ду	е́ядень <b>F</b>	евсть	sit down
+ 3K			
$(=\mathbf{r},\mathbf{g},\mathbf{s}+\mathbf{j}u)$	(=r, д, 3+-je-)		
-кажý <sup>1</sup>	-кажень <b>F</b>	-казать	(show)
мажу	мажешь	мазать	smear
бры́зжу <sup>2</sup>	брызжешь	брызгать	splash
лижу́	лижешь	лизать	lick
гложу	тложешь	тлодать	gnaw
ржу	ржёшь	ржать	neigh
рѣжу	рѣжешь	рѣ́зать	cut
вяжу́	вяжешь	вяза́ть	bind, knit
3+			
везу́	везёшь	везти	convey
ползу́	ползёщь	ползти	crawl
грызу́	трызёшь	трызть	gnaw
лѣзу	лъ́зешь	лъзть	clamber
к+	$(\mathbf{q} = \mathbf{K} + (\mathbf{j})\mathbf{e})$		
влеку	влечёшь	влечь	draw
пеку	печёшь	печь	bake
теку́	течёшь	<b>дрэт</b>	flow
толку	толчёшь	леокот	knock
волоку́ <sup>8</sup>	волочёнь	волочь	drag
TRY	Pamērt.	ткать	weave
cěrý	скчёшь	сђар	cut, flog

<sup>1</sup> e.g. сказа́ть = to say, показа́ть = to show, but the reflexive каза́ться = to seem is used in the simple form.

2 Also бры́згаю, &c.

3 Also волочу́, воло́чишь, волочи́ть (class II).

4 Ог ткёшь.

	Present.		Infinitive.
m +			
жму	жмёшь	жать	squeeze
-ниму́ <sup>1</sup> -иму́ <sup>2</sup>	-нимешь F -имешь F	-HRH-	(take)
-ьмý <sup>3</sup>	-ьмёшь <b>F</b>	-ath )	
$_{\mathrm{H}}+$			
стану	ста́нешь F	стать	become, begin(intrans.)
гну	гнёшь	тнуть	bend
экну	жнёшь	жать	reap
мну	мнёшь	мять	crush
стону́	сто́нешь	стонать 🕯	groan
-ину 5	-пнёшь F	-пять	(stretch)
-чну 6	-чнёшь F	-Tap-	(begin)
дѣну	дъ́нешь F	дѣть	put
кляну́	клянёшь	клясть	curse
тяну́	тя́нешь	тяну́ть	pull
Verbs co	nnoting a gradual	process:	
мёрзну	мёрзнешь	мёрзнуть	be frozen
мо́кну	мо́кнешь	мо́кнуть	be soaked
гасну	гаснешь	гаснуть	die down
кисну	ки́снешь	ки́снуть	grow sour
тихну	тихнешь	тихнуть	grow quiet
со́хну	со́хнешь	сохнуть	grow dry
тону	то́нешь	тонуть	drown (intrans.)
стыну	стынешь	стынуть	grow cold
Verbs co	nnoting a single a	ction:	
двину	двинешь F	двинуть	move (trans.)
кину	ки́нешь F	ки́нуть	throw
крикну	крикнешь F	крикнуть	cry out
тро́ну	тро́нешь <b>F</b>	тро́нуть	touch
пепну	шепнёшь <b>F</b>	шепнуть	whisper
1 1 1 1 1 1 1			-

<sup>1</sup> e.g. обниму, обнимень, обнить = to embrace.

сниму, снимень, снять = to take off, to photograph.
2 e.g. приму, примень, принять = to accept.
3 e.g. возьму, возьмень, взять = to take.
4 Also has present стонию, стониень.
5 е.g. распить = to crucify.
6 e.g. начить = to begin (trans.).

$P_{i}$	resent.	In In	finitive.
p +			
вру	врёшь	врать	prevaricate
бер <b>ў</b>	берёшь	брать	take
дер <b>ў</b>	дерёшь	драть	tear
жру́	жрёшь	жрать	devour
-мру <sup>1</sup>	-мрёшь Г	-мере́ть	(die)
-npy 2	-прёшь Г	-переть	(press)
тру	трёшь	тереть	rub
-crpy s	-стрёшь <b>F</b>	<b>-с</b> тере́ть	(stretch)
c+ ·			
расу	пасёшь	пасти	pasture
несу́	несёшь	нести	carry
трясу́	трясёшь	трясти	shake (trans.)
т+			
плету́	плетёшь	плести	plait
метý	метёшь	мести́	sweep
гнету́	тнетёшь	гнести	press, oppress
pacrý 4	растёшь	расти	grow (intrans.)
-TTY 5	-чтёнь F	-честь	(read)
цвъту́	ашётави	цвѣсти́	blossom
-рѣту́ <sup>6</sup>	-рѣтёшь F	-рѣсти́	(obtain)
$\mathbf{q} + (= \mathbf{k}, \mathbf{T} + -\mathbf{j}\mathbf{k})$	$(= \kappa, \tau + -je-)$		
пла́чу	плачещь	пла́кать	weep
мечу́	ме́чешь	метать	fling
хочý (cf. § 89)	ашэгох	хотъ́ть	wish
хохочу́	хохочешь	хохота́ть	laugh loud
шепчу́	ше́пчешь	шептать	whisper
топчý	то́пчешь	топтать	tread (trans.)
пря́чу	пря́чешь	пря́тать	hide (trans.)
m + (=c, x + ji)	(=c, x+-je-)		
mamý 7	машещь	маха́ть	wave
namý	пащешь	пахать	plough
чешу́ <sup>8</sup>	чещешь	чесать	comb
- ·			

e.g. умере́ть = to die.

s e.g. простере́ть = to extend.

s e.g. проче́сть = to read through.

Also has маха́ю, маха́ешь.

Cf. the impersonal reflexive че́шется = it itches. e.g. запереть = to close.
Also spelt росту, ростешь, &с.
e.g. пріобръсти = to obtain.

Pre	esent.		Infinitive.
nmuý	пишешь	писать	write
пляшў	илэшышы	плясать	dance
$\mathbf{u}_{\mathbf{t}} + (= \mathbf{c}\mathbf{k} + -j\mathbf{u}$ and $\mathbf{t} + -j\mathbf{u}$ )	$(= c\kappa + -je-$ and $\tau + -je-)$		
трепещу	трепещешь	трепета́ть	tremble
ищу́	и́щещь	искать	look for
ропщ <b>ý</b>	ро́пщешь	роптать	murmur
л+			
коле́блю	колеблешь	колебать	rock
мелю́ (cf. § 89)	ме́лешь	моло́ть	grind (corn)
стелю	сте́лешь	стлать	spread
внемлю 1	внемлещь	внимать	heed
дремлю́	дремлешь	дремать	slumber
колю	колешь	коло́ть	pierce
олю	по́лешь	полоть	rake
сынлю	сынлешь	сы́шать	scatter
шлю (сf. р. 150)	шлёшь	слать	send
p+			
борю́сь (cf. § 100)	) борешься	боро́ться	struggle
порю́	по́решь	поро́ть	unstitch
a +			
даю	даёнь	дава́ть	give
ла́ю	ла́ешь	ла́ять	bark
двлаю	дълаень	дѣлать	do,make
знаю	знаешь	знать	know
-знаю́ <sup>2</sup>	-знаёшь	-знавать	(recognize)
играю	игра́ешь	игра́ть	play
ráio	та́ешь	та́ять	than melt
читаю	чита́ешь	чита́ть	read
-стаю́ <sup>3</sup>	-стаёшь	-ставать	(become)
-луча́ю <sup>4</sup>	-луча́ешь	-лучать	(receive)
	and very	many others	3.

<sup>1</sup> Also has present внимаю, &c.
2 e.g. узнавать = to recognize.
3 e.g. уставать = to grow tired, and numerous other compounds.
4 e.g. получать = to receive.

	Present.	Infi	nitive.
i+			
rniń	rniëms	гинть	rot
вопію́	вопіёшь	вопіять 1	wail
0+			
во́ю	во́ешь	BULP	howl
мо́ю	мо́ешь	мыть	wash (trans.)
ною	но́ешь .	ныть	ache
пою́	поёшь	пфть	sing
ро́ю	ро́ешь	рыть	dig
кро́ю	кро́ешь	крыть	cover
y +			
Toprýio	торгу́ешь	торговать	trade
жую	жуёшь	жевать	chew
кую́	куёшь	ковать	forge
сную	снуёшь	сновать	weave
<b>c</b> ý10	су́ешь	совать	poke
совѣтую	совѣтуешь	совътовать	advise
танцу́ю	танцу́ешь	танцовать	dance
чýю	чу́ешь	чу́ять	scent
ночую	ночу́ешь	ночевать	pass the night
потчую	потчуешь	потчевать	treat
	iers, including the infinitive usually апплодируеть формируеть		non-Russian words ), e.g.  applaud  form
ь+			
бью	бьёшь	бить	hit
выо	вьёшь	вить	wind
лью	льёшь	лить	pour
пью	прешр	пить	drink
шыо	шейнь	шить	sew
ъ+			
BÉ10	в́теть	ві́ять	waft
ъъю -дѣ́юсь² (cf.§1		наа -діяться	(hope)
-MBNOB (01.91	ооу-двошвен	-дватьса	(wope)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Has alternative form воилю, воинны, воинть (class II).
<sup>2</sup> надъюсь, надъешься, надъяться = to hope.

Present.		Infinitive	
бѣлѣ́ю	ашэака	ата̀ка̀д	show white
имѣю	имъ́ешь	пивть	have, possess
смѣю	смѣ́ешь	смѣть	dare
смъюсь (cf. § 100)	смѣёшься	смѣя́ться	laugh
ym Šio	умѣ́ешь	умѣть	know how to
en sio 1	спрешь	спѣть	ripen
старѣ́ю	старъ́ешь	старъ́ть	grow $old$
брѣю <sup>2</sup>	брѣ́ешь	брить	shave
грѣю	грѣ́ешь	грѣть	warm
spéno s	<b>з</b> рѣ́ешь	арѣть	ripen
сѣ́ю	свешь	свять -	soiv
-T'bio 4	-тъ́ешь F	atràt-	(plan)
10 +			•
блюю	блюёшь	блевать	vomit
клюю	клюёшь	клевать	peck
плюю	плюёшь	плевать	$_{spit}$
вою́ю	воюешь	воевать	make war
ropióio	горю́ешь	горева́ть	mourn
я+			
ваяю	вая́ешь	ва́ять	sculpt
гуля́ю	гуля́ещь	гуля́ть	walk
-виня́юсь 5 (cf. § 100)	-виня́ешься	-виняться	(excuse)

#### CLASS II.

(Inf. люби́ть)	(Inf. ви́дѣть)	
люблю́ = I love	ви́жу $= I$ see	
любишь	ви́дишь	
любить	видить	
любимъ	видимъ	
любите	ви́дите	
любять	видять	

Not to be confused with спою, спёть а compound of пёть.
 Also spelt брею, &c.
 Not to be confused with эрю, эрёть (class II) = to see.
 затёю, &c. = to plan, contrive.
 извиняться = to excuse oneself.

(Inf. лежа́ть)	(Inf. спать)
лежу́ = I lie, am lying лежи́шь	силю = I sleep, am sleeping
лежи́ть	спить
лежи́мъ	спимъ
лежи́те	спите
лежать	спять
(Inf. говори́ть)	(Inf. платить)
говоріо́ = $egin{cases} Ispeak, am speaking \\ Isay, am saying \end{cases}$	плачу́ $= I \ pay$
говоришь	пла́тишь 1
говори́тъ	платить 1
говори́мъ	платимъ 1
говори́те	ила́тите <sup>1</sup>
говоря́ть	naátatl <sup>1</sup>
(Inf. учи́ть)	(Inf. слышать)
yyy = I teach	$\mathbf{c}$ лыну = $I$ hear
учишь	елышишь
у́чить	ельщить
ўчимъ	слышимъ
учите	ельшите
ýча <b>т</b> ь	слышать

Thus are conjugated the presents of the following verbs and others:

Pre	sent.	Infinit	ive.	
б+				
люблю́	любишь	любить	love	
в+				
ловлю́	ловишь	ловить	catch	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The accented a in all these five persons is usually pronounced like accented o in the case of this verb.

Pre	esent.	Infi	initive.
(r + becomes ж)			
(д + becomes ж			
	*		
		,	
•			agree
глажу	• •		stroke
вижу			see
сижу́		сидѣть	sit
вожу́	водищь	водить	lead
хожу́	хо́дишь	ходи́ть	go (sc. on foot)
гожу́сь (cf. § 100)	) годи́шься	годи́ться	be of use
горжу́сь ( ")	гординься	горди́ться	be proud
гляжу́	глядищь	глядъть	look
x + (= r +)			
	лежи́шь.	лежать	lie
•	ашижооп	дрожать	tremble
	_		keep, hold
La-Taille A		•	run
(3 + becomes as			
in 1st pers.			
sing.)	3+		
лажу	ла́зищь	ла́зить	clamber
вожу́	во́зишь	возить	convey
(K + becomes 4)			
π+			
велю́	велищь	велъ́ть	command
болить		болѣть	ache.
молюсь (cf. § 100	)) мо́лишься	молиться	pray
2.0	шумушь	шумъть.	make a noise
		•	
	- RUHÚIIITS	атиния	blame
			chase
	Tolland	THUID	0.1000
· ·		OTTO TO	alaan
			sleep
	-		endure
тороплюсь		торопиться	hurry
(01. 8 100)			
	(r + becomes ж) (д + becomes ж) in 1st pers. sing.) лажу глажу вижу вижу вижу вижу вижу гожу́сь (сf. §100) горжу́сь (сf. §100) горжу́сь (сф. §100) ж ж + (= r +) лежу́ держу́ держу́ к + becomes ж in 1st pers. sing.) лажу вожу́ (к + becomes ч) л + велю́ боли́ть молю́сь (сf. §100 м + шумлю́ н + виню́ гоню́ и + силю терилю́ тороилю́сь	(д+becomes ж in 1st pers. sing.)         д+           лажу         ладишь           глажу         гладишь           вижу         видишь           сижу         сидишь           вожу         кодишь           кожу         кодишь           гожусь (cf. § 100) годишься         горжусь (горжушь кодишь           горжусь (горжу горжушь кажу         держишь кажишь кажишь (горжу держишь бежийшь (горжу держишь горжу держишь кажу           (з + becomes ж in 1st pers. sing.)         з +           лажу         лазишь           вожу         возишь           (к + becomes ч)         з +           л +         велишь           болить болить (impersonal)         молюсь (сf. § 100) молишься           м +         шумийы           н +         винийы           гоню гоню гонишь         гоню гонишь           герилю терилю         териишь	(r + becomes ж)       (д + becomes ж)         sing.)       д +         лажу       ладишь       ладишь         глажу       гладишь       гладишь         вижу       видишь       видуть         вижу       видишь       видуть         вожу       кодишь       кодить         кожу       ходишь       ходить         гожусь (сf. §100) годишься       годиться         горжусь (д годишь       годиться         горжусь (д годишь       годиться         горжусь (д годишь       горжать         ж + (= r +)       лежишь       держать         лежу       держишь       держать         горжу       доржишь       держать         горжу       доржишь       держать         горжу       доржишь       держать         вожу       возишь       возить         к + becomes ч)       д +         велю       велишь       вельть         болить       болять       вольть         молюсь (cf. § 100) молишься       молиться         и +       нумий       нумёть         н +       ним       ним         поно       гонишь       нать

Pre	sent.		Infinitive.
p +			*
говоріо	говори́шь	говори́ть	speak, say
	горишь	горъ́ть	burn (intrans.)
смотрю́	смотришь	смотръть	look (at)
курю́	ку́ришь	курить	smoke
(c+becomes m in 1st pers. sing.)	c+	-	
крашу	красиць	красить	paint (sc. walls)
вишу́	внейшь	висѣть	hang (intrans.)
ношу́	носищь	носи́ть	wear, carry
(T+becomes 4 or m in 1st pers. sing.)	т+		
плачу́	платишь 1	платить	pay
лечу́	летиць	летъ́ть	fly
верчу́	вертишь	вертъ́ть	turn, twist
блещу	блести́шь	блестѣть	shine
	хоти́мъ, &с. (cf. § 89)	хотѣть	wish
пущу́	пустишь F	пустить	allow, let go
-сѣщу́ <sup>2</sup>	-сѣти́шь <b>F</b>	-сѣти́ть	(visit)
(x + becomes m) x + (= x +)			
кричу́	кричи́шь	крича́ть	shout
молчу́	молчинь	молчать	be silent
yqý <sup>3</sup>	ўчишь	учить	teach
m+(=x+)			
слышу	слышишь	слышать	hear
	and very	many others	
0+			
бою́сь (cf. § 100)	бойщься	боя́ться	fear
стою	сто́ишь	сто́ить	cost, be worth
стою	стойшь	стоять	stand
		3.0	

N.B. The a in all the persons of the present of this verb except the 1st sing. is usually pronounced like accented o.
 посытить = to visit.
 The reflexive учиться = to learn.

### § 89.

### Irregular Verbs.

These are not really irregular at all, but merely the remains of an old conjugation.

3rd sing. 
$$ecrb = is$$
  
3rd plur.  $eyrb = are$ 

are all that is left of the present of the verb  $6 \text{mtb} = to \ be \ (cf. \S\S 81, 112).$ 

## 

			(Inf. ѣсть)			
Sing.	(1	Тиъ			(1	ѣди́мъ ѣди́те ѣдя́ть
Sing.	2	4ша		Plur.	{2	<b>Вдите</b>
	(3	<b>Всть</b>			(3	<b>В</b> дя́ть

N.B. For the 2nd sing. and plur. кушать is more often used.

## дамъ = I shall give

		(Inf. дать)			
	дамъ				дадимъ
Sing. 2	дашь		Plur.		дадите
( 3	дасть			13	дадуть

[вѣмъ = I know, obsolete except in the phrase Ботъ вѣстъ = God knows, still sometimes used; a part, the imperative sing., still survives in the very common conjunction вѣдь = for, equivalent to the French done or  $mais\ voyons$ .]

The following two verbs are partly irregular, and as they are very common deserve special attention:

б $\S$ r $\circ$ = $I$ а	m running	хоч $\circ = I$ want, wisi
(Inf. 64	жа́ть)	(Inf. хотъ́ть)
Sing. $\begin{cases} 1\\2\\3 \end{cases}$	бѣгу́ бѣжи́шь бѣжи́ть	хочу́ хо́чешь хо́четъ
Plur. $\begin{cases} 1 \\ 2 \\ 3 \end{cases}$	бѣжи́мъ бѣжи́те бѣгу́ть	хоти́мь хоти́те хоти́ть

The very common present

Sing.  $\begin{cases} 1 & \text{fay} = I \text{ am going (sc. on horseback or in} \\ 2 & \text{facus} & \text{any form of conveyance but} \\ 3 & \text{facts} & \text{not on foot)} \end{cases}$  Plur.  $\begin{cases} 1 & \text{facus} \\ 2 & \text{facte} \\ 3 & \text{facts} \end{cases}$ 

has an infinitive fxarp.

моло́ть  $= to \ grind$ , pres. мело́, ме́лешь, may also be classed as irregular.

## § 90. The Past.

As mentioned on p. 146 the past in Russian is a tense only in name. In reality it is a past participle active which formerly was used with the help of the present of the verb obten to be, as a compound perfect tense like the German ich bin gewesen. When this present became obsolete the past participle came to be used alone as the past tense and is now not felt to be a participle at all. It is formed from the infinitive, the general rule being to cut off the last two letters (-ть от -тн) and substitute:

-дь for the masc. sing.
-да " fem. sing.
-до " neut. sing.
and -ди " masc. fem. and neut. plur. all three persons.

In the singular it must always agree in gender with the subject of the sentence, whatever person it be, except, of course, that the neuter sing. in -no is only used for the 3rd pers. sing.

The personal pronouns must be prefixed as required, e. g. s, th, oht, oht, oht, oht for the sing., according to gender, and Mei, bei, oht, oht for the plur., but they are often omitted.

There is absolutely no difficulty in forming the past from any verb the infinitive of which ends in

-ать, -ять, -ть, -ить, or -оть.

This includes all the verbs in class II and most of those in class I. The only difficulty is in the accent. This sometimes falls on the ending and sometimes not; it is best learnt by observation and practice.

Examples are given of the pasts of verbs in class II, and of those of class I whose infinitives end as indicated above:

1, 2, 3 Sing.	1, 2, 3 Plur.	Inf.
М. зналь F. знала N. знало	зна́ли	знать $= know$
М. смѣ́ялась Г. смѣ́ялась N. смѣ́ялось	смěя́лись	см'я́яться = laugh
М. видъль F. видъла N. видъло	видът	видьть = see
М. мыль F. мыла N. мыло	икйм	мыть = wash (trans.)
М. пиль F. пила N. пило	ийли	$\mathbf{untb} = drink$
М. боро́лся F. боро́лась N. боро́лось	боро́лись	боро́ться = struggle

In the case of the verbs of class I, all those of which the infinitive ends in -ать, -ять, -ёть, -ыть, ог -ить are formed in exactly the same way as those just mentioned, е. g. сталь, стала, стало, стали; быль, быль, быль, быль, быль, быль, быль, дёль, дёль, дёль, дёль, дёль, сталь, сталь, жиль, жиль, жиль, жиль, жиль, быль, from стать, дёть, быть, and жить. In the case of the others, i.e. of those the stem of which ends in a consonant and the infinitive in -ти, -эть, -сть, -сть, -сть, -сть, -еть, -еть,

One reason is that the infinitive sometimes disguises the end of the stem, and it is to the stem (ending in a consonant) that the endings of the past have to be added, and another is that some of the stems undergo phonetic changes when followed by the -m of the past. The stem can always be found in the 2nd sing. of the present by cutting off the personal endings -eiib or -heiib.

Stems ending in -c, -3, -k, -r, -6, -p lose the -ms of the masculine singular past (those in -p being formed from the infinitive stem. e.g. from rep- and not from rp-), e.g.

$\mathbf{M}$ .	нёсъ )		
F.	несла -	несли	нест $\hat{\mathbf{n}} = \mathbf{carry}$
N.	несло )		
M.	ү акёв		
F.	везла -	везлії	везти́ = convey
N.	везло )		
M.	тёкъ \		
F.	текла -	текли	Teqb = flow
N.	текло́ )	•	
M.	MOLP )		
F.	могла	могли	мочь = be able
N.	могло )		
M.	грёбъ ј		
F.	гребла́ }	гребли	грести́ = 1010
N.	гребло́)		
M.	тёръ у		,
F.	тёрла	тёрлп	repéть = rub
N.	тёрло )		

Stems ending in -A, -T lose these consonants before all the endings beginning with A, e.g.

M.	вёлъ	, 0		
F.	вела -	вели	вести =	= lead
N.	вело )			
M.	мёль			
F.	мела -	мели	мести =	= sweep
N.	мело			

Of the verbs whose infinitives end in -nyth, the majority form their past in the ordinary way, e.g. 1

M	тронуль у			
	тронула	тронули	тронуть =	touch
N.	тронуло }		7 % 1 %	

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> N.B. двинуть when compounded with the preposition, воз-, inserts again the r of its stem, viz. воздвигнуть = to erect, the past of which is воздвигь, воздвигла, &c.; but not when compounded with other prepositions. Исчезнуть = to disappear has both исчезь and исчезнуть.

but those verbs of this class which have so-called inchoative meaning, i.e. denote a process of any sort, lose the syllable-hyand add the terminations direct to the real stem (after stems ending in -x, -c, -x, -3 the -xx falls off), e.g.<sup>1</sup>

	Sing.	Plur.	Inf.
M. F. N.	сохъ сохла сохло	со́хли	со́хнуть = become dry
M. F. N.	кись ки́сла ки́сло	ки́ели	ки́снуть = grow sour
M. F. N.	мокъ мо́кла мо́кло	мо́кли	мо́кнуть $= g$ row wet
M. F. N.	стыль стыла стыло	сты́ли	сты́нуть = grow cold

The pasts of the following verbs of class I must be mentioned individually, being somewhat unexpected; to them are added those of the irregular verbs:

	Sing.	Plur.	Inf.	
M. F. N.	-чёль -чла́ -чло́	nre-	-честь = (read)	
M. F. N.	сѣль сѣ́ла сѣ́ло	сÅлп	cheть = sit down	

¹ ги́бнуть = to perish, has an alternative form ги́нуть; the past of the first is either гибъ, ги́бла, or ги́бнуть, &c., that of the second ги́нуль, &c., and in compounds, e.g. поги́бнуть, only поги́бъ, поги́бла, &c. Several other verbs of this category have both forms of past, but all have the shorter form as given above.

# THE VERB

Sing.	Plur.	Inf.
М. рось <b>F.</b> росла́ N. росло́	росли	расти́ = grow
М. кляль <b>F.</b> кляла́ <b>N.</b> кляло́	кля́ли	клясть = eurse
М. лёгь F. легла́ N. легло́	легли	печь = lie down
М. жёгь Г. жгла N. жгло	<b>MENU</b>	жечь = $burn$ (trans.)
Мшибъ Fшибла Nшибло	-шабли	-шпби́ть = (hit)
М. Бль F. Бла N. Бло	ni	ъ́сть = eat
М. даль F. дала́ N. дало́	дали	дать $= give$
Notice especially		
М. мёль F. мла N. мло	шли	идт $\acute{ ext{u}}=go$
хотъ́ть has	acátox	хоть́ла хоть́ло
бѣжа́ть "	бъжа́ль	хотёли бёжа́ла бёжа́ло
ъ́хать "	Бхаль	бъжали Ахала <u>Б</u> хало
быть "	быль	ѣхали была было
мсло́ть "	моло́ль	бы́ли моло́ла моло́ло
		ико̀ком

### § 91.

#### The Future.

The future in form is exactly the same as the present, and has no special endings of its own. It is a peculiarity of Russian that the present tenses of all the so-called perfective verbs have future meaning. This will be explained amply in §§ 101, 104.

The future can also be formed by using the form 65/37, 65/361115 = I shall be, thou wilt be, &c. (of the verb <math>66175 = to be), together with the infinitive of any of the so-called imperfective verbs. The difference in meaning between these two forms of the future will be explained in § 104.

### ₹ 92.

### The Conditional.

This is formed by adding the particle бы (often contracted to бъ) to the past of any verb.

This particle is really a part of the verb outs = to be, which originally possessed a complete conditional tense, long since quite obsolete. This particle out can be placed before or after the verb, the only rule being that as it is an enclitic it cannot begin a sentence, and therefore if placed before the verb the personal pronoun which is otherwise often omitted must be used. In meaning the conditional can be either past or future, according to the context.

## Example:

хотыть-бы = I should have liked or I should like (inf. хотыть = to wish).

The particle can either follow the verb thus:

	Sing.	Plur.
M.	хотъ́ль-бы у	
F.	хотъ́ла-бы	жотѣ́ли-бы
N.	хотъло-бы	

all of which forms can of course be preceded by the requisite personal pronouns; or it can precede it, in which case the personal pronouns are essential:

	Sing.	Plur.
	д бы хотыть	мы )
M.	ты бы хотыль	вы - бы хотёли
	онь бы хотыль	они

	Sing.	Plur.
	я бы хоть́ла ты бы хоть́ла она́ бы хоть́ла	мы )
F.	∤ ты бы хотѣ́ла	вы бы хотели
	( она́ бы хотв́ла	онъ )
N.	оно́ бы хоть́ло	они бы хотили

§ 93.

The Imperative.

The endings of the imperative are:

The endings -n, -nre are added to the present stems of all those verbs in class I which end in a consonant and have the accent on the ending of the 1st sing. of the present, e.g.

If the accent is not on the ending of the 1st sing., then -b, -bre are added, e.g.

If, however, the present stem ends in two consonants, then, although the accent be on the root, the endings -u, -ure are added.<sup>2</sup> e.g.

крикни крикни shout!

¹ The very common reflexive берегись, берегитесь = take care!

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> But N.B. сынлю, сынь, сыньте = scatter! and внемлю, внемлы, внемлыте = h ed!

The endings -n, -ure are added to all those present stems which end in a vowel, wherever the accent be, and as a diphthong is formed, the n appears as n, e.g.

Notice that the imperatives of the five verbs бить, вить, лить, пить, and шить are somewhat different, viz.:

бей бейте 
$$= hit!$$
 пей пейте  $= drink!$ 

Similarly the verbs of class II take one or the other pair of endings according to where the accent is on the 1st sing. of the present. In the case of these verbs it is important to remember that the stem is to be found in the 2nd sing. of the present, and not always in the 1st, e.g.

The following imperatives are irregular:

from ля́гу ля́жешь, inf. лечь

from тыть тыть, inf. теть (кушай(те) = partake! is more often used)

from ѣду ѣдешь, inf. ѣхать

N.B. An anomalous 1st plur. of the imperative is often formed colloquially by adding the ending -re on to the 1st plur. of the present, e.g.

(по)идёмте = let us go! поговори́мте = let's have a little chat!

though as a rule the 1st plur. of the present is used alone to express let us.

The 3rd sing. and 3rd plur. of the imperative is expressed by using the word πγεκάτ (= 2nd sing. imperat. from πγεκάτь = to let) or πγετь (= 2nd sing. imperat. from πγετήτь = to let), followed by the perfective present, e.g.

пускай придёть = let him come пускай стоять = let them stand пусть скажеть = let him tell.

For the use of the imperative in conditional clauses cf. § 106.

## § 94. The Infinitive.

The infinitive ends in -Te, -Ye, -TH, or -YH, preceded by various vowels and consonants; when the accent rests on the infinitive ending itself (which it does in a small minority of all the Russian verbs) then the ending is -TH (-YH), otherwise it is -TE (-YE).

As examples of all possible varieties of infinitives have been given in § 87, it is unnecessary to repeat them here.

## § 95. The Gerund.

The present gerund is in most cases formed from the third person plural of the present by cutting off the last three letters, viz. -mth, -yth, or -att and adding -s, e.g.

неся́ = carrying from несу́ть чита́я = reading " чита́ють говора́ = speaking " говора́ть си́дя = sitting " сида́ть сто́я = standing " сто́ять гла́дя = looking " глада́ть.

The following are formed somewhat irregularly:

давая = giving from дають
-знавая = recognizing ,, -знають
-ставая = standing ,, -стають.

N.B. The present gerund from xorath = they wish has acquired the meaning although and is almost always used as a conjunction in this sense.

When the 3rd plural of the present ends in -yrs or -ars preceded by ж, ч, ш, or ш, then the present gerund ends not in -я, but in -a, e.g.

ила́ча = weeping from пла́чуть ища́ = seeking ,, и́щуть мо́лча = being silent¹ ,, молча́ть лёжа = lying down ,, лежа́ть

There is another form of the present gerund which is formed by cutting off the last two letters of the 3rd pl. present (-TL) and adding -UL. This form is very commonly used by the peasants and in popular poetry, but in literature only a few verbs have it; from the verb obline = to be, it is, however, the only form of the gerund ever used, viz.:

бу́дучи, from бу́дуть.

The past gerund is formed from the masc. sing. of the past 'tense' by cutting off -лъ and adding -въ or -вши, e.g.

бывь from быть чита́вь ог учита́вни , чита́ль бвин , бль.

Those pasts which lose the -m in the masc. sing. add -mn, e.g.

лёгши from лёгь нёсши " нёсь.

Those pasts in which a final -A, -T of the stem has fallen out before the -AT in the masc. sing. replace the dental and add -MM, e.g.

ведши from вёль (inf. вести).

Notice especially:

ше́дши from шёль (inf. итти́).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Used abverbially = in silence.

### § 98.

### The Participles.

The present participle active is formed, like the present gerund, from the 3rd plural of the present tense by cutting off the last two letters -TE and adding -min, -man, -mee, which word is then declined exactly like xopómin, xopóman, xopómee, q. v.

E. g. from любять (inf. любять), pres. part. act. любящій = loving from ведуть (inf. вести), pres. part. ведущій = leading (sc. to) from знають (inf. знать), pres. part. знающій = knowing (sc. who knows).

It must be noticed that the participle, present in form, of the verb δήμy = I shall be, viz. δήμγμιϊ, has imperfective future meaning, and commonly means next, or the next; the neuter δήμγιμε is used substantivally = the future.

§ 97. The past participle active is formed, like the past gerund, from the masc sing. of the past 'tense', by cutting off -m and adding -buiß, -buian, -buiee, which word is then declined exactly like xopóuiß.

E. g. from люби́ль (inf. люби́ль), past part. люби́вшій, &c. = having loved

from ыть (inf. всть), past part. выній, &c. = having eaten

from быль (inf. быль), past part. бывшій which is always used to express former or late (though, N.B., not the late, which is покойный). Those pasts which lose the -ль in the masc. sing. add -ший, -шая, -шее.

E. g. from ўмерь (inf. умереть), past part. уме́ршій, &c. = having died, dead.

Those parts in which a final -A, -T of the stem has fallen out before the -A5 in the masc sing, replace the dental and add -miñ, &c.

E. g. from вёль (inf. вести́), past part. ве́дшій, &c. = having led from шёль (inf. итти́), past part. ше́дшій, &c. = having gone from паль (inf. пасть) there are two forms: па́дшій and па́вшій = having fallen.

§ 98. The present participle passive is formed from the 1st plur. of the present tense, the final -мъ of which is turned into -мый, -мая, -мое, the word thus formed being declined like бе́лый; е. g. from чита́емъ (inf. чита́ть), pres. part. pass. чита́емый, &с.; from ви́димъ (inf. ви́деть), pres. part. pass. ви́димый, &с.; from лю́бимъ (inf. любить), pres. part. pass. любимый, &с. (= favourite).

A few verbs of class I with stems ending in consonants form the present participle passive irregularly in -omen, &c.

E.g. from несёмъ (inf. нести́), pres. part. pass. несо́мый, &с. from ведёмъ (inf. вести́), pres. part. pass. ведо́мый, &с.

from искать = to seek, pres. part. pass. искомый, &c.

§ 99. The past participle passive is formed from the infinitive in two different ways. One is by cutting off the ть of the infinitive and adding ть, та, то for the short or predicative and тенний, тенний,

E. g. from сдълать = to make

past part. pass. сдѣланъ, -на, -но; -ны; сдѣланный, &с.

from потеря́ть = to lose

past part. pass. поте́рянъ, -на, -но; -ны; поте́рянный, &с.

from дать = to give

past part. pass. данъ, дана́, дано́; даны́; даный, &с.

from ocmorphth = to inspect

past part. pass. осмотрънъ, -на, -но; -ны; осмотрънный, &с.

Verbs of Class II with inf. in -HTD form the past part. pass. as follows:

from обвинить = to accuse

past part. pass. обвинёнъ, -на́, -по́; -ны́; обвинённый, &с.

from ужалить = to sting

past part. pass. ужа́лень, -на, -но; -ны; ужа́ленный

from páнить = to wound

past part. pass. ра́ненъ, -на, -но; -ны; ра́неный

from учить = to teach

past part. pass. (short form not used) учёный (= learned, a savant).

The past participle passive of those verbs of class II, the 1st person sing, of the present of which is affected by the following palatal vowel (cf. § 87), is formed from the 1st person sing, of the present in the following way:

from заплатить = to pay

1st sing. pres. заплачу́  $(\tau + \omega = \tau y)$ 

past part. pass. заплаченный (pronounced заплоченный)

from садить = to set, plant

1st sing. pres.  $cany (\pi + 10 = my)$ 

past part. pass. саженный

from exocuts = to more

1st sing. pres. ckomý(c+10 = my)

past part. pass. скошенный

from купить = to buy

1st sing. pres. куплю́

past part. pass. ку́пленный.

Notice especially:

from обидьть = to offend

past part. pass. обиженный, &c.

A few verbs of this class which have presents in -my form their past participles passive with m.

E.g. from oбратить = to turn

past part. pass. обращённый

from просвётить = to enlighten

past part. pass. просвъщённый

from nockráte = to visit

past part. pass. посёщённый

and from otherath = to avenge oneself

past part. pass. отомщённый.

Many verbs of class I whose stems end in a consonant form their past participles passive from the second person sing., cutting off the ending -emb and adding -ëmb, &c., for the predicative, -ëmhliff, &c., for the attributive form.

E.g. from Becru = to lead

2nd sing. pres. ведёнь past part. pass. ведённый

прочесть = to read through

2nd sing. pres. прочтённь раst part. pass. прочтённый

стричь = to shear, cut (hair)

2nd sing. pres. стрижёшь

past part. pass. стриженный

жечь = to burn (trans.)

2nd sing. pres. жжёшь

past part. pass. жжённый

and others.

The other way of forming the past participle passive is by cutting off the -5 of the infinitive and adding -5, -a, -o for the short or predicative, and -514, -a4, -oe for the long or attributive form. This form is by far the less common of the two.

E. g. from мыть = to wash past part. pass. мытый, &c. from бить = to hit past part. pass. битый, &c.

from проклясть = to curse

past part. pass. проклятый, &c. from гръть = to heat

past part. pass. грѣтый, &с.

from тереть = to rub

past part. pass. тёртый, &c.

from запереть = to shut (c. g. a building)

past part. pass. запертый, &c.

Other common verbs which form their past participles passive in this way are:

начать = to begin жать = to reap
нажить = to earn мять = to crush
занить = to occupy, to borrow одыть = to dress
покрыть = to cover ийть = to sing
жать = to press брить = to share

and all verbs in -нуть,

e.g. from протянуть = to stretch forth past part. pass. протянутый, &c.

## § 100. The Reflexive Verb.

This is formed by the addition of -ca (or -cb), a reduced form of the reflexive pronoun ceóá, to all parts of the verb, as follows:

купа́ться = to bathe (imperfective and intransitive).

#### Present.

я купаюсь
ты купаеться
опъ, она, оно купается
мы купается
вы купаетссь
опи, онъ купаются

#### Past.

М. купался )

Sing. F. купа́лась Plur. купа́лись

N. купалось)

## Future.

буду купаться, &с.

Conditional.

Imperative. купа́йся купа́йтесь

Present Gerund. купа́ясь Present Participle. купа́юща́ка, &с. Past Gerund. купа́вшись Past Participle. купа́вшійся, &с.

Ся is added whenever the part of the verb ends in a consonant or in ь or й; сь when it ends in a vowel. Ся is added in the participles throughout, whether preceded by vowel or consonant.

### § 101. The uses of the Verb.

In order to use the verb correctly it is necessary to know not only the way it is conjugated but also what aspects it possesses.

This is where the real difficulty begins. It will have been noticed that, compared with other languages, Russian possesses very few tenses in the grammatical sense of the word; this want is supplied by the aspects.

The aspects are different forms of the same verb; the same verb acquires a different meaning according to its aspect. The aspects are formed by altering the verb itself either by prefixing some preposition or by lengthening or otherwise altering the root itself; the personal endings remain unaltered and each aspect of the verb has a more or less complete set of forms, i.e. present, imperative, infinitive, &c.

There are two main divisions of the aspects of the Russian verb:

1. imperfective

and 2. perfective.

The verbs themselves are called imperfective or perfective according to the aspect in which they are used in any particular case, i.e. a verb is said to be imperfective, or is said to be used in the imperfective aspect, and every verb must necessarily belong

to one or the other division, i.e. must be either imperfective or perfective.

The difference in meaning between these two aspects is that when any one uses an imperfective verb the action described by that verb is in the mind's eye of the speaker INCOMPLETE, or, if in the past, must have been of uncertain duration.

When, on the other hand, any one uses a perfective verb, then the action is either COMPLETE or, if in the future, the speaker must have its completion in his mind's eye.

In English there is of course also variety of aspects, but it is expressed not by altering the verb itself but by the use of auxiliary verbs or adverbs; for instance, I go, I am going, I used to go, I often go, I was going are imperfective, whereas I went, I am gone, I shall go are perfective.

The majority of simple Russian verbs, i.e. those which are not compounded with any preposition, are imperfective, but from the fact that a given verb is compounded with a preposition it by no means follows that that verb is perfective. Nevertheless it is true that the commonest way of turning an imperfective into a perfective verb is by prefixing to it a preposition.

Now the curious thing is that when a preposition is used merely to make a perfective out of an imperfective verb, that preposition loses its original meaning.

Further, while there is always one preposition in particular which when prefixed to a verb both makes the verb perfective and loses its own original meaning, on the other hand, all the other prepositions when prefixed to the same verb both make it perfective and retain their original meaning, thus altering the meaning of the verb as well.

The difficulty is to know which is the particular preposition in each case which merely makes a given verb perfective, and as it is sometimes one preposition and sometimes another, the only thing for the beginner to do is to make a list of the commonest verbs and learn them by heart, putting down the simple (imperfective) verb and the form of the same verb compounded with that preposition which makes the verb perfective, while allowing the verb to retain its meaning but losing its own.

One of the prepositions most frequently used for transforming an imperfective into a perfective verb is no, which in the process quite loses its meaning of along or over, and merely defines the space of time during which the action takes place, e.g.

It has already been indicated that not all simple verbs are imperfective and conversely that not all verbs compounded with prepositions are perfective; these categories of verbs will be examined later.

There follow now paradigms of one or two very common verbs in couples, first the simple (imperfective) and then the compound (perfective) verb. It will be noticed that not both aspects of the same verb have an equally complete paradigm. This, as will be explained, is in the nature of things, and is invariably the case.

First the paradigms are given, then remarks on the use of the various parts of the two aspects:

$$\left\{\begin{array}{l}
\text{д'Елать} \\
\text{сд'Елать}
\end{array}\right\} = to do, to make$$

	Imperfective.	Perfective.
present	дѣлаю	—— (cf. § 102)
past	дѣлалъ	едѣ́лалъ
future .	бу́ду дѣ́лать	сдѣлаю
conditional	дѣлаль-бы	сдѣлалъ-бы
imperative	дѣлай	сдѣ́лай
infinitive	дблать	сдѣ́лать
pres. ger.	дѣлая	-
past ger.	дѣ́лавъ	сдѣлавъ
pres. part. act.	дѣлающій	-
past part. act.	дѣ́лавшій	 сдѣ́лавшій
pres. part. pas	s. дѣлаемый	
past part. pas	s. дѣ́ланный	<b>с</b> дѣ́ланный

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> = съ + д'єлать.

$$\left\{\begin{array}{c} \text{писать} \\ \text{на} + \end{array}\right\} = to write$$

	mperfective.	Perfective.
present	пишу́	—— (cf. § 102)
past	писалъ	написалъ
future	буду писать	напишу́
conditional	писаль-бы	написаль-бы
imperative	пиши	напиши́
infinitive	писать	написать
pres. ger.		
past ger.	писа́въ	написавъ
pres. part. act.	пи́шущій	
past part. act.	писа́вшій	написа́вшій
pres. part. pass.		
past part. pass.	писанный	написанный

#### § 102. The Present (imperfective).

Russian possesses only one present, while English has two:  $\pi$  namely = (1) I write (sc. it is my custom or profession to write) and = (2) I am writing (sc. at this moment). Both these meanings are of course imperfective; when one says  $\pi$  namely = I write, or  $\pi$  namely = I am writing, the speaker does not naturally envisage the termination of his activity. An example of the use of the imperfective present:

что вы дълаете? = what are you doing? я пишу́ письмо́ = I am writing a letter.

The imperfective present is frequently used in Russian illogically, instead of the future, as in English; e.g. in telegrams, letters, &c.:

прівзжаю за́втра = I am arriving to-morrow (прівзжа́ю is an imperfective present).

The historic present is often used in narration instead of the past.

Use of the Present in subordinate sentences.

The imperfective present is used in all cases where it is used in English; after verbs of *declaring*, *feeling*, &c. The subordinate sentence is always introduced by Tro, e. g.

я говорю́, что онъ врёть = I say that he is lying я ду́маю, что онъ лю́бить  $e\ddot{e} = I$  think he loves her ты зна́ещь, что я тебя́ люблю́ = thou knowest that I love thee.

In this connexion it should be noticed that after the verb выдёть the so-called paratactic construction is very common in Russian; this is especially frequent in narration. By omitting the 470 it gives the impression of two principal sentences instead of a principal and a subordinate sentence, e.g.

видять — летить къ нимъ птица = they see a bird flying towards them (lit. they see — a bird is flying towards them).

Russian is much stricter in the correct expression of time, however, and the present is often used in Russian in subordinate sentences where in English we use the past although we mean the present, e.g.

I did not know that this was so = я не зналь, что это такъ (lit. I did not know that this [is] so)

he told me that he was writing a book = онь сказать мий, что пишеть книгу (lit. = he told me that he is writing a book)

she thought he loved her = она думала, что онъ её любить (lit. she thought he loves her)

and in these cases it would be a very bad mistake to use the past in the subordinate clause.

In conditional clauses the imperfective present is used whenever the condition refers to the actual present; the subordinate sentence is introduced by  $\acute{\text{ecm}} = if$  (sometimes by  $\acute{\text{exem}}$ ), and the antithesis in the principal sentence is often expressed by the pronoun to used adverbially, e.g.

е́сли вы коти́те, то скажи́те ему́ = if you wish, then tell him сды́лайте э́то для ней, е́сли вы её лю́бите = do this for her if you love her.

When the condition refers to the future the perfective present (= perfective future, q.v.) is usual, though in the cases of some

verbs the imperfective present is used illogically for the future, as in English, e.g.

е́сли мо́жете, то приходи́те за́втра = if you can, then come to-morrow.

In concessive clauses the imperfective present is used as in English; the subordinate sentence is introduced by xotá = although (sometimes reduced to xota), he cmotpá ha to, uto = in spite of the fact that, and the antithesis in the principal sentence is expressed by ho = but, ogháko = nevertheless, beëtakh = all the same, or by the enclitic -takh = yet,

хота́ всѣ говора́ть что это пра́вда, я имъ всётаки не вѣ́рю = although all say that this is true (the truth), all the same I don't believe them.

In relative clauses—whoever, in sentences where the present is necessary, is expressed by the simple relative, e.g.

кто говорить это, врёть = whoever says this, lies.

Whoever, whatever, and however are also expressed by the relative with the negative particle Hu, which however does not make the sentence negative,

что онъ ни дъ́даеть, всё ему́ удаётся = whatever he does, he succeeds in everything

какъ вы ни стара́етесь, вы не сумвете это сдвлать = however much you try you will not be able to do this.

If the relative sentence is negative the ordinary negative particle ne is used and not HM,

кто не знасть этого человъка, тоть не можеть понять почему его такь уважають = whoever does not know this man, cannot understand why people respect him so.

In causal clauses the imperfective present is very common; the subordinate clause is introduced by notomy, who = because or take kake = since (in letter-writing these are often abbreviated to n.t. w. and t.k.),

она́ цёлу́еть его́ по тому́, что она́ его́ лю́бить = she kisses him because she love; him

такъ какъ вы не хотите сказать мнѣ, я спрощу́ его́ = since you do not wish to tell me, I'll ask him.

In consecutive clauses the imperfective present is used as in English; the subordinate sentence is introduced by 4TO, e.g.

онь такь болень, что я не могу́ его́ оста́вить = he is so ill that I cannot leave him.

In temporal clauses the subordinate sentences are introduced by  $\kappa$  or  $\mu$  as  $\mu$  when (often answered by  $\mu$  or  $\mu$  = then),  $\mu$  or  $\mu$  = then,  $\mu$  is to begin  $\mu$  and  $\mu$  are  $\mu$  while,

когда я пишу́, я не люблю́ что́бы со мной говори́ли = when I write I don't like people to talk to me

сидите со мной пока я одъваюсь = sit with me while I am dressing. In comparative clauses the subordinate sentence is introduced

In comparative clauses the subordinate sentence is introduced by kake = how answered by take, or take u = thus

какь думаеть, такь и говорить = as he thinks, thus (too) he speaks.

#### The Present (perfective).

It is one of the greatest peculiarities of the Russian verb that the formal present of every perfective verb has future meaning, so that while every perfective verb has a tense which is present in form, it is in meaning always a definite future (cf. § 104).

### § 103. The Past (imperfective).

This is the equivalent of the imperfect, and its use connotes that the action was more or less habitual or that the period of time during which it lasted is in the mind's eye of the speaker indefinite.

я писать = I was writing, or I used to write.

Examples of the use of this tense:

что вы двлали когда я вошёль въ комнату? = what were you doing when I entered the room?

я писаль письмо́ = I was writing a letter

прежде она писала много = formerly she used to write a lot.

The use of the imperfective past in subordinate sentences is common in temporal, concessive, and comparative clauses, but presents no difficulties.

It is important to remember that in Russian the present is often used in a subordinate sentence where we use the past.

For the use of 6mbano with the perfective present (= perfective future), of. § 104.

### The Past (perfective).

This is the equivalent of the acrist and its use connotes that the action is completed; it can never be used for any action that is habitual, frequentative, or indefinite:

я написа́ль = I wrote, or I have written, or I had written.

Examples of the use of this tense:

я написаль твоему́ отцу́ письмо́ = I have written your father a letter

что вы сдѣлали? = what have you done?

There is one curious use of the perfective past which, owing to its prevalence and peculiarity, deserves special mention. The perfective past of any verb can be combined with the neuter singular of the past of 6hth, viz. 6hh, to convey the meaning that an action was on the point of being completed and was only just prevented; it is the Russian way of saying was on the point of, was just about to . . . , e.g.

онъ началь было приподниматься на постели чтобъ встать... = he was on the point of beginning to raise himself on the bed, in order to get up (when some one addressed him and he stopped where he was)

не дожидаясь отвёта онъ пошёль было вонъ = without waiting for an answer he was just going to leave the room (when he was stopped)

Алёша сталь было оть лике́ра отказываться = Alesha was about to refuse the liqueur

я было сказа́ть ему, а онь уже по $\hat{h}$ халь = I was just going to tell him, but he had already gone.

Although this construction usually implies an unfulfilled intention it is sometimes used when the action was really accomplished, but was interrupted at the very moment of completion.

Another idiomatic construction with much the same meaning is чуть было не with the perfective past, e.g.

онь чуть было не всталь съ постал = he almost got up from the bed (sc. but didn't)

я чуть было не упаль = I very nearly fell.

This is in fact the usual way of saying nearly followed by a verb, as the adverb nearly (nouth) is almost exclusively used with nouns and adjectives.

# The use of the Imperfective Past where that of the Perfective Past is to be expected.

This is very common and for the foreigner immensely increases the difficulty of correct expression. It is most frequent in negative sentences; negation of an action seems to the Russian to demand an imperfective verb. E.g.

я не писать ему may mean: I was not writing to him; but it may also mean, and usually does: I have not written to him.

Very common phrases are:

вы мнь давно не писали = you haven't written to me for a long time

я никогда́ не вида́ть eró (imperfective) = I have never seen him (N.B. In Russian two negatives do not make an affirmative) я не слыха́ла ей (imperfective) = I have not heard her (sc. never).

But where the negation refers to one particular event, the perfective may be used, e.g.

не я это сдёла́ль = it was not I (who) did this я не узна́ль вась = I didn't recognize you.

In interrogative sentences also, where the question covers a long period of time, the imperfective is also frequently used (-IM is the interrogative particle):

писа́ли-ли вы дѣлали-ли вы когда́-нно́удь? = have you ever written, done, seen, heard?

In general it may be said that in negative and interrogative sentences the imperfective is, in the nature of things, more usual than the perfective aspect.

A most unexpected use of the imperfective past is made in some cases where the action is quite definite and the most obvious aspect to use would seem to be the perfective. These are cases in which the speaker who uses the imperfective instead of the perfective aspect wishes by so doing to give a slightly indefinite tone to what he is saying; by using the imperfective instead of the

perfective he makes a suggestion, as it were, instead of a statement. To the beginner this seems a gross inconsistency, but it is really a very subtle refinement.

For example, one often hears Russians say:

онъ мнъ писаль объ этомъ

when one definite letter is referred to and the meaning can only be: he wrote to me about this, or he did write to me, &c.; in this case the use of the imperfective may connote hostility or incredulity in the mind of the speaker, or it may be merely intentional vagueness.

Another very common instance is:

онъ говориять мнв, что ... = he told me, that ...

where a perfective verb would be natural; in this case there is an English equivalent, for we often say: he was telling me when we mean he told me.

The imperfective past is used where one would expect the perfective past particularly frequently in the case of the following verbs:

ходиль and its compounds, вздиль, compounds of взжаль, and носиль, водиль and возиль and their compounds, amongst others.

These are all verbs of motion and their use in such cases usually implies a stay of short duration and subsequent return to the point of departure, e.g.:

въ прошломъ году́ мы вздили въ Россио = last year we went to Russia (for a trip)

мы вчера́ ходи́ли въ теа́тръ = yesterday we went to the theatre

сейча́съ прійзжа́ль ко мнѣ Оболе́нскій и привози́ль письмо́, то́лько что полу́ченное имъ отъ брата Дмитрія . . .

Obolenski has just come to (see) me and has brought a letter just received by him from (his) brother Demetrius.

The use of the Perfective Past as an Imperative.

In the case of two verbs the perfective past is used as an imperative; these are:

пошла́ пошла́ fr. inf. пойти́ = to go (on foot) and пошли́ пошли́ вс., fr. inf. пойхать = to go (sc. in any way except on foot)

It must be noticed that the verb of course agrees with the object addressed, e.g.

пошла собака! = be gone, be off (addressing a dog).

#### The use of the Perfective Past in subordinate sentences.

The perfective past is used in subordinate sentences after verbs of *declaring*, &c., when the event really refers to the past, e. g.

я уже́ сказа́ть вамъ, что написа́ть письмо́ =I have already told you that I have written the letter

but it is important to remember that whenever the action is still going on, even though the principal sentence is in the perfective past, the verb in the subordinate sentence must be in the present or the future (cf. § 102).

я ему сказа́ль, что не люблю́ его́ = I told him that I didn't like him.

In relative, concessive, temporal, comparative, and consecutive clauses the imperfective and perfective past are of course both common, but its use presents no difficulties; the perfective past is common in temporal clauses beginning with as soon as (какътолько), before (прежде чъмъ, передъ тъмъ какъ), after (посяв того какъ), hardly — when — (только что — какъ —), as soon as ever (чутъ), until (пока не):

какъ то́лько прі́вхаль, я захвора́ль = as soon as I arrived, I fell ill онъ сдѣлаль э́то пе́редъ тѣмъ, какъ я ему́ написа́ль = he did this before I had written to him

онь написаль это послё того, какь получиль мое письмо́ =  $he\ wrote$  this after  $he\ had\ received\ my\ letter$ 

только что я пришёль, какъ онъ у́мерь = hardly had I come, when he died

ты чуть вошёль, я вмигь узнала = thou hadst barely entered, I at once recognized [thee].

# § 104. The Future (imperfective).

The imperfective future presents no difficulties; it is a compound tense and is formed by  $64\pi y$  (= I shall be) and the imperfective infinitive. It is always used when any future action is referred to the completion of which is not envisaged by the speaker.

It must be remembered that it is only the imperfective infinitive which can be used after буду; to use a perfective infinitive after

бу́ду is one of the worst mistakes a foreigner can make. An example of the tense is given in full:

я буду писать

ты булешь писать

онъ, она будеть писать

мы булемь писать

вы будете писать

они. онъ будуть писать

= I am going to write (sc. indefinitely).

An example of the use of the imperfective future:

что вы бу́дете дъ́дать по́сль за́втрака? = what are you going to do after lunch (= in the afternoon)?

я бу́ду писа́ть, чита́ть = I am going to write, read

вы будете писать мив? = you will write to me? (sc. more than once) буду = I will.

Стану, станешь, &c. (from стать = to become, to take up one's stand), is also used followed by an imperfective infinitive to form this same tense, instead of бу́ду, but it is much commoner in the written than in the spoken language. It is particularly common in negative sentences.

The use of the imperfective future in subordinate sentences does not present any difficulties, but cf. § 102.

# The Future (perfective).

This is in form exactly the same as the present, and is in theory the present tense of the perfective aspect, while in fact it always has future meaning. It is used when the completion of any future action is contemplated by the speaker. The use of this tense is at first the most puzzling for the beginner.

#### Examples:

я напишу́ ему́ тепе́рь = I shall write to him now я сде́лаю это завтра = I shall do this to-morrow.

The imperfective present and the perfective future can of course be used together, e.g.

я посмотрю, что онь тамъ д'ялаеть = I shall have a look, what he is doing there

while

я смотрю, что онъ дълаеть = I am watching, what he is doing.

There is one use of the perfective future which is very idiomatic and requires special notice. The perfective future of any verb can be combined with the neuter singular of the past of 6616475 (the imperfective frequentative form of 66175 = to be), viz. 6618476, to convey the idea of a perfective or definite action which used to take place often or customarily in the past:

зайдёть она бывало ко мнь чай инть = she used often to look in on me to have tea (зайдёть = she will look in on, perfective)

онъ бывало скажеть мнь: 'Принеси стакань воды' = he would often say to me: 'Bring me a glass of water.'

Бывало can also be used with the imperfective present to express an imperfective habitual action in the past, but this construction is not so common.

The perfective future is also used in narration like a historic present, e.g.

Татья́на то вздохнёть, то о́хнеть = at one moment Tatyana would sigh, at another she would groan.

It is also frequently used where one would expect I cannot followed by a perfective infinitive, e.g.:

не разберу́ ничего́, воё вздоръ = I can't make out a word, it's all nonsense (lit. I shall not be able to make out).

#### Use of the Future in subordinate clauses.

The future is often used in Russian in subordinate sentences, where in English we use the past or the verb would, should, e.g. after verbs of declaring, &c.:

He said that he would be there, or that he was going to be there = онь сказа́ль, что бу́деть тамь (lit. = he said that he will be there)

I knew that he would do this, or that he was going to do this = я зналь, что онь это спылаеть (= I knew that he will do this)

She did not know that I was going to write = она не знала, что я напишу́ &c.

In relative clauses the perfective future is used after kto hu = whoever, tho hu = whatever:

что вы ни скажете, я вамъ не повърю = whatever you may say, I shall not believe you.

The use of the perfective future is especially common in temporal clauses with the meaning of the future perfect where we in English illogically use the present, e.g.

напини́те, какъ то́лько прів́дете = write as soon as you arrive (lit. shall arrive)

подумайте хороше́нько, передь темь какъ сделаете это = reflect well before you do this (lit. will do)

скажемъ вамъ всё послъ того, какъ вернёмся = we shall tell you everything after we return (lit. shall return).

N.B. KAKE is often used alone with the meaning when. Until is usually expressed by noká he, though he is sometimes omitted, e.g.

я не напишу́, пока́ не получу́ отъ него́ письмо́ = I shall not write, until I have a letter from him.

The perfective future is often used in conditional clauses where we use the present illogically:

е́сли онъ сдѣ́лаеть э́то, я закричу́ = if he does this (lit. will do) I shall scream.

§ 105. The Conditional (imperfective and perfective).

The conditional, as already explained in § 92, is not a separate tense in form, but is merely compounded of the past and the particle 65. It can be formed from the imperfective as well as from the perfective past, but it is far more commonly formed from the latter.

The peculiarity of the tense from the syntactical point of view is that it can refer to the future as well as to the past, e.g.

что вы бы наинсали? = what would you have written? or what would you write?

это было-бы невозможно = that would have been impossible, or that would be impossible.

# Other uses of the Conditional.

The conditional is very common in relative sentences beginning with whoever, whatever, expressed in Russian by the relative pronouns kto to, followed by the 6m of the conditional and the negative particle hm:

кто бы это ни написать, я ему скажу .. = who ever wrote this, I shall tell him

тто бы вы ни сділали, ничего не поможеть = whatever you do, nothing will help

что бы это ни стоило, надо это сдылать = whatever it cost, we must do this

что бы ни случилось, повдемъ = whatever happens, we shall go.

The conditional is used in unfulfilled conditional sentences, both in the principal and in the subordinate sentences; in the latter it is joined to the word  $\epsilon_{\text{CM}}$  (= if) and is usually reduced to  $\sigma_{\text{b}}$ , e.g.

я бы сділать это, е́слибы могь = I should have done this if I had been able

éслибъ она котъла, она бы написала = if she had wished (to), she would have written.

But it must be carefully observed that if the condition is still capable of fulfilment either in the present or the past, these tenses are used in Russian and not the conditional, e.g.

е́сли можете, напишите теперь = if you can, write now

я бу́ду о́чень радь, е́сли вы сдѣлаете э́то. = I should be very glad if you did this (lit. = I shall be very glad if you will do this).

The conditional is used in final clauses where the subject of the subordinate is not the same as that of the principal sentence; 6st is always joined to the conjunction who which introduces the subordinate sentence, e.g.

я пишу́ ему́, чтобы онъ узна́ть пра́вду = I am writing to him in order that he may learn the truth

онь дёла́еть это, чтобы мы замётили его́ = he is doing this in order that we may notice him

она помогла ему, чтобы онъ потомъ помогъ ей = she helped him in order that he might later help her.

The conditional is used in concessive clauses if the sense is hypothetical, e.g.

хотя́-бы зналь, что вы тамь, я бы не могь придти́ = even though

I had known you were there I should not have been able to come.

The conditional is used after all verbs of wishing, commanding, and praying, both affirmative and negative; the subordinate sentences are introduced by чтобы от чтобы, e.g.

я хочу, чтобъ онъ это сдылать = I wish him to do this (lit. I wish that he would do this)

она хочеть, чтобъ я ей написаль = she wishes me to write to her (... чтобъ я ей писаль would mean to write more than once, often)

онь приказа́ль, что́бы вы пошли́ къ нему́ = he ordered you to go to him

она просила, чтобы мы это сдилали = she begged us to do this.

The conditional is often used after verbs of declaring, feeling, and believing when the verb in the principal sentence is negatived; the subordinate sentence is introduced by чтобы от чтобы, e.g.

я не говорю, чтобы это было такъ = I do not say, that this is so я не думаю, чтобы онъ это сдылать = I do not think that he did it я не вырю, чтобы было опасно = I don't believe that it is dangerous

когда́ я пишу́, я не люблю́ что́бы со мной говори́ли = when I write I don't like people to talk to me.

In conversation, however, the present and past are often used instead of the conditional, and when the subordinate sentence refers to the future, then the future only is used, e.g.

я не думаю, что будеть хо́лодно = I don't think that it will be cold.

The conditional, negatived, is often used after verbs of fearing (бояться) expressing a positive fear; the subordinate sentence is introduced by чтобы от какъ-бы, e.g.

я боюсь, чтобы вы не простудились = I am afraid that you will catch cold

я боюсь, какъ-бы онъ не узнать = I am afraid he will find out though что followed by the perfective future can also be used in such cases, and must be if the fear is negative, e.g.

я боюсь, что онъ мн $\upbeta$  не напишеть = I am afraid that he will not write me.

The conditional is also used invariably after certain negative expressions, e.g.

невозможно, чтобы это было правда = it is impossible that this is true (lit. the truth)

невъроятно, чтобы онь написать мнъ = it is improbable that he would write me, or that he will write.

The particle 6m is sometimes used by itself in certain expressions elliptically, e.g.

воть-бы хорошо́! = there, wouldn't that be nice!

For the use of 6m with the infinitive cf. § 107.

# § 106. The Imperative (imperfective and perfective).

The imperative is used in Russian as in English. The difference between the imperfective and the perfective imperative is that the former implies a command of a more general nature, while the latter refers to the immediate present, e.g.

смотри́, смотри́те! = look out (sc. take care)!
посмотри́, посмотри́те! = look here!
слу́шайте мени́! (inf. слу́шать) = listen to me (sc. take my advice)!
послу́шайте! (inf. послу́шать) = listen!

Very often the imperfective imperative is used when it is a question of polite request rather than of a peremptory command; this is especially so in the case of the verb to take, inf. брать (imperfective), and взять (perfective), e.g.

берите это = take this

is more polite than

возьмите, though the latter is often used.

The same holds good of the verb to hand, to serve, inf. подавать (imperfective), подать (perfective), е. g.

подавай (те) объдь! = serve the dinner!

is more polite than

пода́й(те) мн $\mathring{\mathbf{s}}$  счёть !=give (lit. hand) me the bill !

The imperatives of the verb to allow, to let, inf. πυσκάτω (imperfective), πυστάτω (perfective), followed by the 3rd sing. of the perfective future, are used to express the 3rd sing. of the imperative (cf. § 93), e.g.

пусть от пускай скажеть вамь = let him tell you пускай сделаеть = let him do it пусть напишеть = let him write.

The imperative masam(re) is very commonly used colloquially with the meaning let's, e.g.

давай (те) играть въ карты! = let's have a game of cards!

to which the answer usually is:

дава́й(те) = [yes] let's!

The imperative дай (те) is often used with the meaning let, e.g. дай (те) мнъ говорить! = let me speak.

In prohibitions the imperfective is used, e.g.

не дава́йте ей говори́ть! = don't let her speak.

In negative commands the imperfective imperative is almost invariably used, even when the prohibition only covers a definite act or period of time, e.g.

не пишите emý! = don't write to him! (= either now, or in future)

не смотри́те! = don't look!

не говорите ему! = don't tell him!

не говорите! = don't talk abcut it!

(for the use of the infinitive in commands cf. § 107).

An exception is the verb

to forget, inf. забывать (imperfective), забыть (perfective)

of both of which the imperative is quite common, e.g.

не забывайте мени!=don't forget me

but не забудьте что я вамъ сказа́лъ! = don't forget what I told you! не забу́льте! = don't forget!

не забудьте написать мн $\S != don't$  forget to write to me!

(cf. незабу́дка = forget-me-not).

# Use of the Imperative in conditional sentences.

The imperative is frequently used in Russian in unfulfilled conditional sentences; in this construction the imperative can be combined with any noun or pronoun, e. g.

будь этоть домь дешевле, я бы купиль eró = if this house had been chraper, I should have bought it (lit. = be this house cheaper).

In this construction the perfective imperative is always used in spite of the negative:

не случи́сь тамъ ло́дка, я бы утону́ль = if a boat hadn't happened [to be] there, I should have been drowned

не сдылай онъ этого, она бы пришла = if he had not done this, she would have come

скажи я слово́, онъ бы и наинса́ть = if I had said the word, he would have written

тужо́го не жела́й—своего́ не тери́й = if you don't covet other people's goods, you won't lose your own.

There is a very idiomatic use of the imperative which is especially common in narration and deserves mention. This is a combination of the imperative of the perfective verb βεάττις = to appear (lit. to take oneself), viz. βοσραμίος with the words οτκόμα his = whencesoever, e. g.

вдругь, откуда ни возьмись, заяць! = suddenly, as if from nowhere, there appeared a hare!

Notice also the following idiomatic uses of the imperative:

того́  $\pi$  смотри́, что онъ унадёть! = I am afraid that (sc. at any moment or before we know where we are) he will fall (lit. = look out!)

поминай какъ зва́ли! = you'll never see [him] again (lit. = remember how they called him, sc. his name)

кажись (instead of кажется) = it seems, one would think.

Another idiomatic use of the imperative is with the conjunction xote, when it acquires the meaning you may as well . . .

écли вы не поможете въ нашей просьов, то ужъ не знаемъ, какъ п быть: просто коть въ петлю полъзай! = if you don't help us in our request, we simply shan't know what to do: we may as w ll go and hang ourselves! (lit. climb into the noose)

ничего́ нельза́ съ этимъ сді́дать, хоть брось = nothing can be done with this, you may as well fling it away.

Sometimes xoth = even though (= xotá) in this same construction:

хоть убей, не скажу = even though you kill me, I shall not tell.

# § 107. The Infinitive (imperfective and perfective).

The difference in meaning between the two aspects of the infinitive has already been explained; it remains to give some examples of the various uses of the infinitive.

In expressions of a general character the imperfective infinitive is always used, e.g.

писать книги непріятно = to write books is unpleasant

while if a single event is referred to the perfective is of course necessary, e.g.

ско́лько у него́ де́негь? тру́дно сказать = how much money has he? it is difficult to tell.

The following idiomatic use of the infinitive should be noticed: HÉMATE = there is nothing to be done

онь пьёть оть нечего д'ядать = he drinks because he has nothing to do (lit. from doing nothing)

говорить нечего (от нечего и говорить)! = there's nothing more to be said! (sc. that goes without saying)

(cf. § 51)

YMTD TAKED IN GENTE = such is fate, or very well then, let's make the best of it!

стало-быть = consequently . . . or in that case, I suppose . . .

After verbs of beginning, continuing, ceasing, finishing, &c., the imperfective is used, e. g.

уже́ на́чали игра́ть = they have already begun to play онъ продолжа́ль чита́ть = he continued to read оны́ переста́ли говори́ть = they ceased talking я ко́нчиль писа́ть = I have finished writing

and of course all the more when these verbs are negatived.

After the verb to know how to, inf. ymsts (imperfective), csymsts (perfective), the imperfective and perfective infinitives respectively are used, e.g.

онъ умъ́еть дъ́лать фо́кусы = he knows how to do tricks сумъ́ете-ли вы это сдъ́лать? = will you know how to do this?

After the verb to have time to, inf. успѣвать (imperfective), успѣвъ (perfective), the perfective is naturally always used, e.g.

я каждый день усивайю написать пять писемь = every day I manage to write five letters

успъете-ин вы это сдёлать сего́дня? = shall you have time to do this to-day?

After the verb to be able, inf. Mous (imperfective), both aspects are used, according to the sense, e.g.

можете-ли вы это сдёлать? = can you do this?

я не могу́ говорить (imperfective) = I can't speak (sc. am physically unable)

я не могу́ сказа́ть (perfective) = I can't say

я не могь писать = I could not write (sc. was physically unable)

я не могь написать = I could not write (sc. just then, that once), or I have been unable to write (sc. till now)

The perfective future of this verb is supplied as a rule by the perfective verb:

cyméть = to know how to,

but this again is not used where it is a question of surmounting physical difficulties. In this case the Russians as often as not use the imperfective present MOTÝ, &c., illogically with future meaning, just as we do in English, e.g.

я могу́ придти́ за́втра = I can come to-morrow (sc. shall be able to).

The imperfective future of MOUD is not used; its place is taken by the phrase

буду въ состояни + inf. = I shall be in a position to . . .

After the verb to wish, inf. xorers (imperfective), either aspect can be used, e.g.

я хочу́ писать = I wish to write (sc. be an author)

я хочу́ написать письмо́ = I wish to write a letter

я не хочу́ говори́ть (imperfective) = I don't want to talk

я не хочу сказать (perfective) = I don't want to say

я хотыть сказать = I meant to say.

 $<sup>^{1}</sup>$  N.B. The perfective aspect of mode is cmode, pres. cmoré = I shall be able, but this is very seldom used; whenever it is, it implies the surmounting of great physical difficulty.

After verbs such as Modáth = to like, предпочитать = to prefer, не мобать = to dislike, the imperfective infinitive is of course the more usual.

After verbs of refusing, agreeing, &c., either aspect can be used, though the perfective is the commoner.

#### Use of the Infinitive instead of the Future.

This is common in such phrases as:

что-же дълать? = what are we to do? (what is to be done?)

написать-ми ему? = shall I write to him?

что написать? = what shall I write?

пойти и сказать ему = I shall go and tell him (or let us...)

какъ намъ быть? = how are we to manage?

зачъмъ продать? = why are you (or we) going to sell? (= why sell?)

сказать вамъ = shall I tell you?

какъ вамъ сказать = (lit. = how shall I tell you?) how shall

I put it?

#### Use of the Infinitive with the conditional particle.

This occurs in such phrases as:
посмотрѣть-бы? = shall we have a look?
Often it is merely the verb было that has been omitted, e.g. хорошо́-бы поѣхать = it would be nice to go
попробовать-бы? = shall we have a try (or a taste)?

### Use of the Infinitive instead of the Imperative.

This is especially common in public notices, e.g. Éxatь márowь! (imperfective) = drive at walking speed! (cf. aller au pas!)

никого́ не пуска́ть! (imperfective) = don't let any one go!

наплева́ть! = spit! (sc. take no notice of it!)

The infinitive плевать can even be used in place of a finite verb, e.g.

я плевать на твоего́ хозя́нна! = I don't care in the least about your master!

#### Use of the Infinitive in subordinate sentences.

In final clauses the infinitive is used when the subject of the subordinate is the same as that of the principal sentence (cf. § 105), e. g.

я пишу́ ему́, что́бы узна́ть пра́вду = I am writing to him in order to find out the truth

онъ д $\dot{b}$ лаеть  $\dot{s}$ то, чт $\dot{o}$ бы пом $\dot{o}$ чь мн $\ddot{b}=he$  is doing this in order to help me.

In conditional clauses the infinitive is very common, e.g.

е́сли ему́ написа́ть, онъ сдв́лаеть сей-ча́сь = if we write to him, he will do it at once

е́сли вамъ сказа́ть, вы не пове́рите = if I tell you, you ucon't believe [me].

Sometimes the écan is omitted, and the infinitive used in the principal as well as in the subordinate sentence, e.g.

много желать — добра не видать = if you wish for much, you'll see no good

пойти́ — такъ пойти́! = if we are going, then let's go!

A very curious idiomatic use of the infinitive is mentioned here, as it is at first extremely puzzling to the foreigner; it is often, though not always, in the form of an answer to a question, and consists of the infinitive followed by the past or present of the same verb, while in meaning it always implies dissatisfaction or the non-fulfilment of a possibility, e.g.

#### Question:

слыхали-ли вы про это? = have you heard about this?

#### Answer:

слыха́ть-то слыха́ть, но не вѣ́рю = oh yes, I have heard, but I don't believe it.

#### Question:

видали-ли вы царя? = have you seen the tsar?

#### Answer:

видать-то видать! = oh yes, I've seen him (sc. but never spoken to him)

говори́ть-то она говори́ть, а ничего́ не дѣлаеть = she talks a lot, but does nothing

yméte-to a yméte, no a ne xorý = I know how to [do it], but I don't want to.

§ 108. The Gerund (imperfective and perfective).

The gerund is used in Russian as in other languages to avoid the complication of an explanatory (usually subordinate) sentence.

The present gerund is naturally formed only from imperfective verbs; the past gerund from both imperfective and perfective. Whenever a gerund from a perfective verb does have the ending of the present gerund, viz. -s, it has perfective (past) meaning, e.g. from

inf. увидъть = to perceive

past perfective gerund

уви́дѣвши and уви́дя } = having perceived.

### Examples of the use of the Gerunds.

бу́дучи въ го́род $\mathring{\mathbf{h}}$ , мы заши́й къ вамъ = being in the town, we looked you up

прочита́въ письмо́, онъ пов́халь = having read the letter, he departed

говори́въ три часа́, онъ сѣть на своё мѣ́сто = having spoken for three hours, he sat down in his place.

Some gerunds are very commonly used to express attitude, e.g.

инсать лёжа = to write while lying down

пъть сидя = to sing sitting

говорить стоя = to speak standing up.

The following idioms should be noticed:

мо́лча = in silence

ма́до погода́ or немно́го погода́ = after a little (lit. = having waited a little) не́хотя = unwillingly.

Some gerunds have quite lost their original meaning and are used as adverbs or conjunctions:

from xothtb = to wish xoth = although

(N.B. willingly is oxótho)

from spith = to look

3pa = at random, without reflection, to no purpose

from cmotphis = to look

Hecmotphi Ha + acc. = in spite of

cmotph = all according

e.g. смотря́ какъ = that's just as it may happen смотря́ по какой цвнъ́ . . . = according to the price at which . . .

and from ymrta = to know how to, the popular form ymrtau = having the knowledge, e.g.

это надо сделать уменочи = you must have the knack to do this.

#### § 109. The Participles (imperfective and perfective).

The participles are little used in conversation but are very common in literature.

There are naturally no present participles formed from perfective verbs. Past participles active are formed from almost all verbs of both aspects; past participles passive are formed from all perfective (transitive) verbs and from a considerable number of imperfective (transitive) verbs.

As regards the use of the participles it may be mentioned that some of them are used as nouns, e.g.

для куря́щихъ = for smokers

для не́курящихъ = for non-smokers

бу́дущее = the future

въ бу́дущемъ = in the future

подлежа́щее = the subject (gram.)

сказу́емое = the predicate ,,

насѣко́мое = insect

while in general it may be said that the present participles both active and passive are far more commonly used as pure adjectives without being considered as participles at all, e.g.

сийдующій = following is always used for the next вы сийдующемы году́ = next year сейдущій = knowing, learned онь бчень сейдущь по + dat. = he is very learned in . . . настоящій = (1) present (of time), = (2) real будущій = future дюбимый = favourite зависимый = dependent независимый = independent,

Notice the idiom:

повидимому = apparently.

Present participles passive beginning with ne-correspond to our e.g. in - able

e. g. неумоли́мый = inexorable неоцѣни́мый = invaluable.

From several verbs two forms of participle are in use, the regular present participle in -min (which is phonetically not Russian but Old Bulgarian) and the purely adjectival form in -min (which is the original Russian form of the present participle);

e. g. from rophth = to burn (intrans.)
rophinin = burning
rophinin = hot (esp. of water, food, &c.).

Notice the following present participles which are very common in letter-writing:

The past participle active, too, is but rarely used as a participle. One or two forms are very commonly used as adjectives or nouns, e.g.

бы́вшій = former

проше́дшій =  $past^1$  (esp. in grammar).

Notice

сумасие́дшій = madman

from сойти съ ума = to go mad (lit. to go off one's mind).

The past participle passive is by far the most commonly used of all the participles, and even is not rare in conversation. This participle also often takes the place of the passive, e.g.

кѣмъ э́та кни́га была́ переведена́? = by whom was this book translated?

newly-formed from the perfective past uponiënt are far commoner.

<sup>1</sup> Though the forms произый = last произые = the past

кымы эта пысса написана? = by whom is this play written? она одыта вы чёрномы = she is dressed in black.

In this case also many participles are almost entirely used as adjectives, e.g.

проклятый = accursed вышеупоминутый = above-mentioned.

Notice the idioms:

за́нято = occupied (of places in train, &c.) за́перто = shut (of buildings) биткомъ набито = chock-full.

#### § 110. The Reflexive Verb and the expression of the Passive.

The reflexive verb can sometimes be used, as well as the passive participles, to express the passive, but as a matter of fact phrases which in other languages are in the passive are in Russian very often expressed in the active, e.g.

he is very much liked would be always translated его очень любять

he is hated = его очень не любять

this is not done = этого не дълають

though the phrase это не дылается is also common

this paper is little read = эту газету мадо читають ог эта газета мадо читается.

As a matter of fact, reflexive verbs in Russian are often merely the intransitive forms of otherwise transitive verbs, e.g.

мыть = to wash (trans.)
мыться = to wash (intrans.)
купать = to bathe (trans.)
купаться = to bathe (intrans.)
продолжать = to continue (trans.)
продолжаться = to continue (intrans.)
родиться = to be born

(родить = to bear child)

but N.B.

онь продолжаеть писать = he continues to write.

Some transitive verbs when used intransitively require the complete reflexive pronoun instead of the abbreviated form -ca, e.g.

чу́вствовать = to feel (trans.)
чу́вствовать себя́ = to feel (intrans.)
я себя́ чу́вствую нехорошо́ = I don't feel well
какъ вы себя́ чу́вствуете? = how do you feel?

Many reflexive verbs which are intransitive have no corresponding transitive form, e.g.

смориа́ться = to blow one's nose призна́ться = to confess улыба́ться = to smile каза́ться = to seem остава́ться = to laugh остава́ться = to remain станови́ться = to become случа́ться = to happen. надѣяться = to hope простуди́ться = to take cold

боя́ться = to fear is both transitive and intransitive.

#### The verbs

нравиться = to please побоваться = to admire насаться = to touch, concern наслаждаться = to enjoy are looked upon as intransitive, and take the first the dative, the second the genitive, and the last two the instrumental.

A few reflexive verbs are only used impersonally:

смерка́ется = it is growing dark мнѣ хо́чется = I want to . . . мнѣ нездоро́внтся = I don't feel well мнѣ не си́ится = I can't get to sleep, I don't sleep well мнѣ сни́тся = I see in my dream, (he) appears to me in my dream че́шется = it itches разумѣется = it is understood, of course.

Notice the curious use of the impersonal verb:

приходится (lit. = it comes itself)

#### 1. = one has to

приходится играть = one has to play (мн $\pm$ ) припплось заплатить = (I) had to pay что придётся намъ сд $\pm$ лать? = what shall we have to do?

2. = stands in relation to (me) + inst.

она приходится мнѣ двоюродной сестрой = she stands in the relationship of first cousin to me = she is my first cousin.

#### § 111. Impersonal Verbs.

Besides the impersonal reflexive verbs already mentioned, a few others, the use of some of which is peculiar, may be noticed here. Some do not call for comment, e. g.

болить = it hurts

у меня́ голова́ боли́ть = my head aches

,, sy65 ,, = my tooth ,, (this can of course also be used in the plural)

подмораживаеть = it is beginning to freeze.

It is freezing is usually expressed merely by the noun moposise frost (sc. there is a frost), e.g.

сего́дня моро́зъ = it is freezing to-day similarly сего́дня о́ттепель = it is thawing.

It is raining can only be expressed by:

дождь идёть (= rain is going)
дождь льёть = it is pouring
cf. снъть идёть = it is snowing
градь идёть = it hails
молнія сверкаєть = the lightning is flashing

rpomb rpemarb = the thunder is thundering.

These phrases are expressed in the past and the future as follows:

вчера́ шёль дождь = yesterday it rained
но́чію вы́шаль сны́ть = there has been a fall of snow in the night
пошёль дождь = it has started raining
вчера́ быль си́льный моро́зь = yesterday there was a hard frost
бу́деть дождь = it is going to rain (there will be of rain)
не бу́деть дожда́ = it is not going to rain
переста́ль дождь = the rain has stopped.

The impersonal verb can also be used, e.g.

BÉMIAJO MHÓTO CHÉTY (gen.) = much snow has fallen (it has fallen out much of snow)

замело́ от занесло́ доро́гу снѣ́гомъ = the road has got covered with snow.

To smell (intrans.) is expressed as follows:

па́хнеть хорошо́ = it smells nice па́хнеть ро́зами = it smells of roses and by a curious impersonal use of the verb нести = to carry оть него несёть духими = he smells of scent (lit. = it carries with scents from him).

To suffice:

хвата́еть (imperfective) = it suffices хва́тить (perfective) = it will suffice непостаёть = it wants

e.g. недостаёть ми $\dot{b}$  eró = I miss him.

Notice the following:

доста́точно } = that is enough

можно = опе тау

можно сказать = one may say

мо́жно говори́ть = talking is allowed

мо́жно? = may one?

нельзя́ = one may not, it is impossible

нельзя́ сказать = one can't say

but N.B. HEUSBÉCTHO = one can't tell (sc. know)

извъстно, что . . . = it is well known that

возмо́жно мо́жеть быть = it is possible

возможно, что откажется =it is possible that he will refuse

можеть быть онь знаеть  $= perhaps \ he \ knows$ 

the latter phrase is very commonly transposed: быть можеть невозможно = it is impossible

невозможно, чтобы онь не знать =it is impossible that he does not

должно́ быть = lit. it must be, but comes to mean it is probable, I expect

должно быть, онъ знаеть = I expect he knows

стало быть = lit. it has become (or begun) to be, but comes to mean consequently, I suppose

ста́ло быть, вы его́ не лю́бите? = then I suppose (I must conclude that) you don't love him?

стало быть — такъ! = I suppose it is so

не cráло + gen. = there is no more of

у него не стало денеть = his money came to an end

надо = it is necessary

мнѣ на́до э́то сдѣлать сего́дия = I must do 'his to-day не на́ло = one must or need not, don't

не надо написать сегодня = it is not necessary to write (the letter)

сказа́ть вамъ? = shall I tell you?

нъть, не надо = no, don't

нужно = it is necessary

не нужно = не надо

to-day

сявдуеть = it is proper, ought (lit. = follows)

не следуеть = it is not correct

вамъ следовало-бы . . . = you ought to . . .

Notice the impersonal use of the verb to begin:

начина́еть темнь́ть = it is beginning to grow dark but когла́ начина́ется концерть ? = when does the concert begin?

Other common impersonal expressions are:

предстойть мнв + inf. = 1 have got to . . . octaëtes мнв + inf. = it remains for me to . .

состойть (изь от вь) = it consists (of) состойтся = it will take place.

# § 112. How to express the verb to be.

The present tense of the verb obits = to be has long since become obsolete; it is either omitted absolutely or its place is taken, in writing by a long hyphen, in speaking by a pause, e.g.

я англича́нинъ = I am an Englishman э́то — мой сынъ = this is my son

whether the pause is made or not entirely depends on how much emphasis the speaker wishes to put in the subject of the sentence.

Notice the fact that the phrases this is, that is, there are, those are, are usually expressed by 500 irrespective of the number and gender of the predicate, e.g.

это мой жена́ = this is my wife это мой дьти = these are my children

unless of course special emphasis is laid on the pronoun, e.g.

ть книги eró, a эти — мой = those books are his, but these are mine.

Here is, here are are often expressed by BOTE, e.g.

воть мой домъ = here is my house,

BOTE can also mean over there is; if very remote distance is pointed to BOHE TAME can be used.

The 3rd sing. of the present is still very commonly used in certain cases, e.g.

Tó ecth = that is (to say)  $\mathbf{T}$ ,  $\mathbf{e}$ , =  $\mathbf{i}$ ,  $\mathbf{e}$ .

Combined with y and a pronoun it is the commonest way of saying have, e.g.

у меня́ есть = I have у него́ есть = he has

though as often as not in these cases the verb ecrb is omitted.

In shops, restaurants, &c., when asking a question, есть must be used, e.g.

Question:

есть у вась икра = have you any caviare?

Answer:

есть = we have,

the negative answer is always

нъть or нъту = we have not.

Hete is really a contraction of не есть, and has come to be the ordinary word for no; it also means there is not and thus have not, e.g.

у меня́ нѣть = I have not у меня́ нѣть отца́ = I have no father.

To есть is sometimes added the interrogative particle -ии, though есть by itself, if the voice is inflected accordingly, is quite sufficient to indicate the question.

Есть-ли is apt to sound like е́сли (=if), and е́сли is in fact a corruption of есть-ли.

Heth-ип у вась? is also a very common way of saying have you got?

Найдётся-ли у вась? from найти  $(=to\ find)$  is also much used to express the same thing.

Ecrь is also used for there is, there are in such cases as:

есть такіе люди, которы́е не лю́бять икры́ = there are such people, who don't like caviare

есть многія вещи, о которыхь я бы хотёль съ вами поговорить — there are many things about which I should like to talk to you въ этой книгь есть много хорошаго — in this book there is much that is good.

The 3rd sing. ects and the 3rd pl. cyts are also used in emphatic declarations or definitions; it should be noted, however, that cyts is very little used, and that ects can be used for any of the three persons singular or plural, e.g.

Турге́невъ любілъ ру́сскихъ какъ они́ есть = Turgenev loved the Russians as they are

жизнь есть трудь для бу́дущаго покол $\acute{\text{E}}$ нія = life is labour for the next generation.

Owing to the fact that ecrь is so seldom used, single adverbs acquire the meaning of whole sentences, e.g.

хо́лодно = it is cold

тепло́ = it is warm

жа́рко = it is hot

мо́жно = it is possible

на́до = it is necessary

мнъ́ хо́лодно = I am cold, &c.

The 3rd sing. of the present of бывать, the imperfective frequentative of быть, is often used:

это часто бываеть = that often happens это никогда не бываеть = that never happens онь у нась бываеть = he sometimes comes to see us.

The past tense of быть does not call for special mention. It is often used to express the idea of visits, e.g.

я быль у нихь вчер $\acute{a}=I$  went to see them yesterday.

The neuter is often used impersonally:

тамъ было двадцать человыть = there were twenty people there.

(For other uses of было and бывало cf. §§ 103, 104.)

The future буду presents no difficulties. Notice the idiom: будеть! = enough!

(For uses of the future, conditional, imperative, and infinitive of 6ыть cf. §§ 104-107.)

# § 113. Various forms of Imperfective and Perfective Verbs.

It has already been remarked that most perfective verbs are formed from imperfective verbs by prefixing a preposition to the latter, and that the preposition used for this purpose loses its meaning. It is impossible to tell which preposition in each particular case is used for the particular purpose of making the imperfective verb perfective, as various prepositions are thus used, e.g.

Imperfective	? <b>.</b>	Perfective.
смотрѣть	to look	посмотрѣть
писать	to write	написать
дѣлать	to do	сдѣлать
знать	to know	узнать
	and others.	

The only thing that can be said is that no is used in an infinitely greater number of cases for this purpose than any other preposition. But it must be remembered that while one preposition merely makes the imperfective verb perfective and loses its own meaning, all the other prepositions when compounded with the same verb both make the verb perfective and endow it at the same time with their own special meaning. For instance:

разсмотръ́ть = to examine closely
приписать = to ascribe, to add in writing
передъ́лать = to do over again, to alter.

These verbs, as has been remarked, are perfective; the imperfective verbs corresponding to them in meaning, i.e. compounded with the same preposition, are the so-called frequentative imperfective verbs, which form a subsidiary category of imperfective verbs. These verbs are frequentative (or iterative) for the most part only in name; the large majority of them are quite ordinary imperfective verbs. Their peculiarity is that even when they are preceded by a preposition they do not, like other verbs, become perfective. They remain imperfective, forming the ordinary imperfective verb corresponding to a perfective verb which has been made perfective by having a preposition added to it and at the same time been altered in meaning by that preposition. These frequentative imperfective verbs are all formed by some alteration of the stem of the verb, either by lengthening it or by

altering the vowel which precedes the infinitive ending. These verbs seldom occur in their simple form, i.e. uncompounded with a preposition, but one or two are quite commonly used, e. g.

бывать (from быть) = to be often это бываеть = that sometimes happens я у нихь бываю = I am in the habit of going to see them говаривать (from геверить) = to be in the habit of saying онь такъ говариваль = he often used to say so.

Such verbs are really frequentative in meaning. But in the great majority of cases, i.e. when compounded with prepositions, they are merely ordinary imperfective verbs. They may have frequentative meaning, but this as a rule has to be specially expressed by the addition of some such word as vácto = often. E. g. забывать is theoretically the frequentative imperfective from забыть (perfective) = to forget; я забываю may mean I often (or always) forget, but on the other hand it may mean merely I am forgetting. Similarly разговаривать = to converse is theoretically a frequentative imperfective from говорить, but it may mean either I converse or I am conversing. For this reason it is better not to label these verbs frequentative or iterative, but to call them what they are in the great majority of cases, viz. compound imperfective verbs, in order to differentiate them effectively from the large number of imperfective verbs which are simple and from the perfective verbs the majority of which are compound, while some are simple.

It is now time to examine the various ways in which these compound imperfective verbs are formed.

In a large number of cases they are formed by the insertion of the syllable -MB- or -MB- between the stem of the verb and the infinitive ending. Compound imperfectives from almost all verbs ending in -AT and from many others besides are formed thus and belong to this category. Verbs of this formation which in their original form contain the vowel o in their stems, usually, but not necessarily, change this to a in the compound imperfective. The verbs are here arranged in series of four, e.g.

- 1. пытать = to try = simple imperfective.
- 2. HOHERTATE = to try = compound perfective with loss of measuring by preposition.

3. Relievante = to experience = compound perfective with retention of meaning by preposition.

4. MCHATGHBATS = compound imperfective with retention of meaning by preposition. It must of course not be imagined that the particular compound perfective, with retention of meaning by the preposition, is in each example here given the only compound perfective formed from that verb. In the case of some verbs such compounds are very numerous; the examples here given are chosen at random, but they include only verbs that are commonly used:

Imperfective.		Perfective.
писать	to write	написа́ть
приписывать	to ascribe	приписать
дѣ́лать	to do	сдѣлать
передѣлывать	to alter	передблать
смотръть	to look	посмотрѣть
разсматривать	to examine	разсмотрѣть
читать	to read	почитать
		ирочитать
прочитывать	to read through	прочесть
прозинывань	to read introdys	alternative verbs
		didentical in meaning
искать	to search	поискать
взыскивать	to exact	взыскать
работать	to work	поработать
зараба́тывать	to earn	заработать
слушать	to listen	послушать
подслушивать	to overhear	подслушать
ломать	to break	сломать
проламывать	to break through	проломать
стро́ить	to build	построить
устраивать	to arrange	устропть
смѣя́ться	to laugh	засмѣя́ться
осмѣивать	to deride	осмъять
красть	to steal	украсть
обкрадывать	to rob	обокрасть
тянуть	to pull	потянуть
стя́гивать	to tighten, close	стянуть

Those verbs of class II, the 1st sing. of whose present is affected by the personal ending -10 (which changes into -y, cf. §§ 87, 88), are similarly affected in their compound imperfective forms, though no longer belonging to the same class, e.g.

Imperfective.		Perfective.
просить	to request	попросить
спранивать	to ask (a question)	спросить
дави́ть	to squash	подавить
задавливать	to throttle	задавить

From a number of perfective verbs the compound imperfectives are formed by inserting -Ba- between the stem and the infinitive ending, e.g.

	Perfective.
to hit	побить
to kill	убить
to sing to strike up a song	спѣть запѣть
to drink to spend on drink	вы́пить пропить
to cover to uncover, open, discover	покрыть раскрыть
to wash (trans.) to wash (intrans.)	вымыть умыться
	to kill to sing to strike up a song to drink to spend on drink to cover to uncover, open, discover to wash (trans.)

Notice especially the verbs (for other simple perfective verbs cf. § 114):

Imperfective.		Perfective.
дава́ть	to give	дать
pres. даю́		pres. дамъ
дъвать	to put	дѣть
pres. дѣваю		pres. дѣну
and the second s		

and бывать = to be often, to happen (from быть = to be).

Some verbs of this category cannot be formed in complete series in this way, e.g.

Imperfective.		Perfective.
знать	to know	)
узнавать	to learn (news), to recognize	узнать

Imperfective. pres. узнаю́ узнаёшь		Perfective. pres. узна́ю узна́ешь
	to take one's stand	стать pres. ста́ну
уставать pres. устаю and many other	to grow tired very common compounds	уста́ть pres. уста́ну
болѣть	to be ill	,
	only as impersonal	забольть
боли́ть габоль́ва́ть	it aches to fall ill	

Those verbs which, both in their imperfective and perfective aspects, have no preposition, i.e. do not require a preposition to form their perfective aspect, can of course also be compounded with any preposition in both aspects, the preposition always retaining its meaning, e.g.

Imperfective.		Perfective.
давать	to give	дать
подавать	to hand, serve	подать
продавать	to sell	продать
придавать	to add	придать
передавать	to hand over	передать
пздавать	to edit, publish	издать
раздавать	to distribute	раздать
воздавать	to reward	воздать
выдавать	to deliver	выдать
поддаваться	to submit	поддаться
сдавать	to deliver	сдать
создавать	to create	создать
задавать	to set (e.g. questions)	задать
додавать	to complete	додать
	_	

(N.B. Many of the compounds here given have other meanings besides those given here, and of course the same applies to other verbs.)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> For its other meanings cf. p. 214.

Imperfective.		Perfective.
двать	to put	дъ́ть
одъвать(ся)	to dress	одъ́ть(ся)
надъвать	to put on	надъ́ть
раздѣва́ть(ся)	to undress	раздѣть(ся)
переодівать (сп)	to change dress	переодѣть(ся)
задъвать	to catch hold of	задъ́ть
(-става́ть)	to take one's stand	стать
переставать	to cease	перестать
заставать	to find (sc. at home)	застать
доставать	to obtain	достать
оставаться	to remain	остаться
вставать	to get up (sc. from bed)	встать
разстава́ться	to part (intrans.)	разстаться

Verbs with infinitives in -чь, -зть, -сти form their compound imperfectives by adding -ать to their stem, e.g.

I	mperfective.		Perfective.
	мочь	to be able	<b>СМОЧЬ</b>
	помогать	to help	помочь
	влечь	to drag	повлечь
	привлекать	to attract	привлечъ

The verb horn forms its compound imperfective as follows:

Imperfective.		Perfective.
ъсть	to eat	побсть
съѣда́ть	to eat up, consume	събсть
надовдать (intran	s.) to importune	надобсть (intrans.)

The cognate verb to dine:

Imperfective.	Perfective.
	( пообідать
объ́дать	( отоб'ядать

is from the noun offgt = dinner.

Verbs of which the stem contains two adjacent consonants insert is or n between these in the compound imperfective, e.g.

Imperfective.		Perfective.
слать <sup>1</sup>	to send	послать
pres. шлю		*
высылать	to banish	выслать
жать	to press	пожать
pres. жму		
прижимать	to squecze	прижать
звать	to call	позвать
pres. 30bý		
называть	to name	назвать
тере́ть	to rub	потереть
pres. rpy		
обтирать	to wipe	обтереть
жечь	to burn (trans.)	сжечь
pres. жгу		*
зажигать	to light, kindle	Sankéus
ждать	to wait	
pres. жду	to await	
ожидать	to expect	
поджидать	to wait (for)	подождать
пожидаться	f to attain by waiting	дождаться
долицанов	{ to await until (arrival) }	домедания

There are several verbs of this kind which are never used except in composition, e.g.

Imperfective.		Perfective.
умирать .	to die	умере́ть
		pres. умру́
начинать	to begin	начать
		pres. начиу́

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This verb has an imperfective frequentative of its own, посыла́ть = to send.

The verb ATS (only used in composition with prepositions, cf. § 88) forms its compound imperfectives as follows:

Imperfective.		Perfective.
[-имать] внимать занимать нанимать	to attend, hear to occupy, to borrow to hire	[-ять] внять (pres. not used) заня́ть pres. займу́ займёшь наня́ть pres. найму́, &c.
N.B. понимать	to understand	поня́ть pres. пойму́ поймёшь, &c.
поднима́ть (ог подыма́ть)	to lift	поднять pres. подниму́ подни́мешь, &c.
принимать	to accept	приня́ть pres. прпму́ при́мешь, &c
снимать	to take off (clothes) to photograph	сні́ть ргез. сниму́ сни́мешь
N.B. —— ef. § 117	to take *	взять pres. возьму́
[взима́ть = to і пойма́ть	levy money] to catch	возьмёшь cf. § 117

In the case of this verb, the stems of which are -nm- and -nm-, the h between the preposition and the stem is explained by the fact that certain prepositions, e.g. ch and be, originally ended in a nasal, which was dropped after such forms as chert had become crystallized. On the analogy of these forms, the h was inserted between the preposition and the stem in other compounds of this verb.

The pasts of all these perfectives are занять, занята, занять; занять: понять, понять, понять, понять, понять, понять, кел., i.e. they are, as to be expected, formed from the infinitive.

#### § 114. Perfective Simple Verbs.

Not all perfective verbs are compound. There is a fair number of simple verbs which are already perfective in themselves without the prefixing of any preposition.

Such verbs are

дать = to gire
дъть = to put
стать = to take one's stand, to become, to begin.

Besides these there are two categories of simple verbs which are perfective; the first contains verbs of various classes, most of them very common:

Imperfective.		Perfective.
бросать	to throw	бросить
кончать	to finish	ко́нчить
ложиться	to lie down	лечь
лишать	to deprive	лишить
па́дать	to fall	пасть
прощать	to forgive	простить
ся	to say good-bye	ся
пускать	to let (go)	пустить
рвшать	to decide	атишат
скакать	to leap	скочить
становиться	to become	стать
ступать	to step	ступить
садиться	to sit down	сѣсть
хвата́ть	to seize	хвати́ть
являться	to appear	яви́ться

Of one verb the imperfective aspect is compounded with a preposition, while the perfective aspect is a simple verb, viz.

покупать to buy купить

These verbs being perfective when they are simple, are none the less perfective when compounded with a preposition. Of the corresponding simple imperfective verbs, some when compounded with a preposition become perfective and require the formation of a compound imperfective, others remain imperfective.

Imperfective.		Perfective.
ступать	to step	стушить
поступать	{to enter (an institution)} to behave	поступить
рѣша́ть	to decide	рѣши́ть
разрѣша́ть	to permit	разрѣши́ть
явля́ться объявля́ть	to appear to declare but	яви́ться отівнать
бросать	to throw	бросить
выбра́сывать	to throw out	{выбросить {выбросать
становиться	to become	стать
останавливаться	to stop	остановиться
садиться пересаживаться	to sit down to change trains	сѣсть пересѣ́сть

The other category contains a number of verbs ending in -нуть, which by means of this ending connote a single (definitive, perfective) action, e.g.

Imperfective.		Perfective.
глядѣть	to look	глянуть
дви́тать	to move (trans.)	двинуть
крича́ть	to cry out	крикнуть
кидать	to fling	кинуть
маха́ть	to wave	махнуть
плевать	to spit	плюнуть
совать	to shove	сунуть
трогать	to touch	тронуть
шептать	to whisper	шепнуть

It is important not to confuse these with other simple verbs ending in -нуть which are imperfective, e.g. тянуть = to pull, which are made perfective in the ordinary way, viz. by prefixing a preposition, потянуть, крынуть = to grow strong, compound perfective orphunytь. These verbs in -нуть being perfective are naturally also perfective when compounded with a preposition; the corresponding simple imperfective verbs are usually lengthened by the already familiar process (insertion of -ыв- or -нь-) to form the corresponding compound imperfective, e.g.

Imperfective.		Perfective.
глядъ́ть	to look	гляну́ть ¹
взгля́дывать	to look up	взгляну́ть
совать	to shove	су́нуть
высовывать	to shove out	высунуть
тро́гать	to touch	тро́нуть
дотрогиваться	to come into (physical) contact with	дотро́нуться
кричать	to cry out	крикнуть
вскрикивать	to scream	вскрикнуть
Notice		
кидать	to fling	ки́нуть
прикидываться	to pretend to be	прикинуться
покида́ть and	to abandon	покинуть
висьть	to hang (intrans.)	повиснуть

Some verbs only used in composition with prepositions cannot be formed in complete series, e.g.

Imperfective.		Perfective.
обманывать	to deceive	обмануть
вздыха́ть	to sigh	вздохну́ть
исчезать	to disappear	исче́знуть
привыкать	to grow accustomed to	привыкнуть
отвыкать	to disaccustom oneself to	отвыкнуть

## § 115. Imperfective Compound Verbs.

Conversely not all compound verbs are perfective. We have already seen that the prefixing of a preposition does not necessarily make a verb perfective, e.g. pastobáphbath = to converse, yóhbáth = to kill, nokyháth = to buy, noctyháth = to behave. Besides these there is a very large number of compound imperfective verbs which form a class by themselves. These correspond in meaning to a series of compound perfective verbs ending mostly

<sup>1</sup> A perfective verb поглядіть also exists.

in -нть or -ѣть and belonging to class II. The corresponding compound imperfectives are formed not by lengthening the root with additional syllables, but by altering the infinitive ending from -нть or -ѣть to -ять, thus making them verbs of class I. In the course of this alteration the phonetic changes observable in the 1st sing. of the present of verbs of class II (palatalization of the last consonant of the stem and substitution of the ending -y for -ю, е. g. вижу from видѣть, or insertion of л, е. g. люблю from любить) are reproduced throughout the whole of the compound imperfective owing to the influence of the palatal vowel я, which in certain cases becomes a (i. e. -ять, &с., become -ать, &с.).

	Imperfective.		Perfective.
	встръчать	to meet	встрѣтить
	воображать	to imagine	вообразить
	выража́ть	to express	выразить
	навѣща́ть	to visit	навѣсти́ть
	объясня́ть	to explain	объяснить
	ошибаться	to be mistaken	ошибиться
	отвиать	to answer	отвѣтить
	перемѣня́ть	to change	перемѣни́ть
	повторя́ть	to repeat	повторить
	получать	to receive	получить
	позволять	to permit	позволить
	посѣщать	to visit	постить
	ударя́ть	to strike (trans.)	уда́рить
	убѣжда́ть	to convince	убъдить
	употреблять	to use	употребить
Not	ісе вѣшать	to hang (trans.)	повъснть
		and many others.	

In the case of a few verbs which are used in their simple forms it is possible to form the already familiar complete series of four, e.g.

Imperfective.		Perfective.
ставить	to put	поставить
оставлять	to leave	оставить

and many other very common compounds.

## Compound Imperfectives formed by change of accent.

In the case of a few verbs the form of the compound imperfective differs from that of the simple imperfective (except for the addition of the preposition) only in the position of the accent, e. g.

Perfective. Imperfective. палать to fall [пасть] 1 пропадать пропасть to get lost notice also the very common verbs to hit upon, to happen on попасть попалать сыпать to scatter посыпать pres. посышлю, посыpres. сышлю, сыплешь плешь засыпать to cover by strewing засыпать pres. засыпаю pres. засынлю, засыплешь notice also the very common variations of this verb васыпать to fall asleep заснуть просыпаться to awake проснуться двигать to move (trans.) двіттуть pres. двитаю and движу подвигать to move up to (trans.) подвинуть sometimes the r is retained in the perfective воздвигать to erect воздвигнуть бѣтать побѣтать to run избѣжа́ть пзбѣга́ть to avoid атунта ден Г

## § 116. Simple Imperfective Verbs with two forms.

There is a certain number of simple imperfective verbs which have two distinct forms, distinct, though cognate in meaning. They are both equally imperfective, but while one describes an action that is actually in progress, the other connotes potentiality

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The compound perfective упа́сть, pres. упаду́ (compound imperfective упада́ть), is more commonly used than пасть.

or habit. The former are called actual simple imperfectives (sometimes called concrete), the latter potential simple imperfectives (sometimes called abstract). A good example is the verb to go (sc. on foot); to express this there are two distinct imperfective verbs:

- 1. нтти́ (sometimes spelt идти́)
- 2. ходить.

The first means actually to go or to be going, the second potentially to go or to be in the habit of going. Examples:

куда́ вы идёте? = where are you going? (sc. now)

хо́дите-ли вы въ те́атръ? = do you go to the theatre? (sc. ever or aften)

я иду́ гуля́ть = I am going for a walk

я уже́ кожý = I can now walk (sc. after an illness).

The verb to fly is:

- 1. летъть
- 2. летать

воть летить аэроплань! = there is an aeroplane flying! птицы летають = birds fly.

The verb to carry is:

- 1. нести
- 2. носить

почтальо́нъ несёть вамъ письмо́ = the postman is bringing you a letter

я всегда́ ношу́ кало́ши = I always wear galoshes.

These verbs are the following:

Actual.		Potential.
inf. блесть́ть блещу́ блести́шь	to shine	блиста́ть блиста́ю блиста́ешь
inf. бѣжа́ть pres. { бѣгу́ бѣжи́шь	to run	бъ́гать бъ́гаю бъ́гаешь
inf. bestú Fres. Besőmb	to convey	вози́ть вожу́ во́зишь

	ctual.		Potential.
inf.		to lead	водить
1111.	вести	to tena	
pres.	веду		вожу
- (	ведёшь		во́дишь
	гнать	to drive, chase	гоня́ть
	гоню́	*	тоняю
	гонишь		&c.
	идти́	to go (on foot)	ходи́ть
	нду́		хожу́
	идёшь		хо́дишь
	летъ́ть	to fly	лета́ть
	лечу́		летаю
	лети́шь		&c.
	ломить	to break	ломать
	ломлю́		ломаю
4	ло́мишь	*	&c.
	лъзть	to climb, clamber	лазить
	ль́зу		лажу
	лъ́зешь		лазишь
	нести	to carry, bear	носить (to wear)
	necý	,	ношу
	несёшь		носишь
	плыть	to float, swim	пла́вать (to swim)
	плыву́		плаваю
	плывёшь		&c.
	ползти	to crawl	по́лзать
	ползу́		ползаю
	ползёшь		&c.
	садить	to set, plant	сажа́ть
	сажу	to set, plant	сажаю
	садишь		&с.
	*		αυ,
	ýхать	to go (in any way	БЗДИТЬ
	р́ду	except on foot, e.g.	Ďзжу
	<b>Т</b> дешь	by train or on horseback)	ъздишь

Two verbs belonging to this category are defective, viz.

Actual.		Potential.
видѣть вижу	to see	вида́ть
ви́дишь (somet	imes contracted to BI	шь)
слышать	to hear	слыха́ть
слуштин		

The presents of the potential imperfectives of these verbs arenot used; the infinitives and the pasts are, on the other hand, quite common, especially in negations and interrogations, e.g.

eró не видать = he is not to be seen (sc. I can't see him) слыха́ли-ли вы этого пъвца́? = have you ever heard this singer?

When these verbs are compounded with prepositions it is usually the actual imperfective which forms the compound perfective with loss of meaning by the preposition, though such are also sometimes formed by the potential imperfective. It is also the actual imperfective which forms the compound perfective with retention of meaning by the preposition. On the other hand, it is the potential imperfective which forms the compound imperfective with retention of meaning by the preposition:

Imperfective.		Perfective.
летъ́ть (actual) летъ́ть (potential	to fly	полетъ́ть
перелетать	to fly over	перелетѣть
вести́ води́ть	to lead 🔈	повести
проводи́ть	{ to lead through } to spend (time) }	провести
везти́ вози́ть	to convey	повезти́
привозить	to bring (in a conveyance)	привезти

Imperfective.		Perfective.
нести *	to carry	понести
носи́ть	to wear	поносить 1
приноси́ть	to bring (by hand)	принести
идти́ ходи́ть	to go (on foot)	пойти́ сходи́ть <sup>2</sup>
приходи́ть	to come (on foot)	прійти (от придти
находи́ть	to find	найти́
проходить	to pass	пройти́

Needless to say, both forms of all these verbs have many other compounds besides those given here.

The two verbs видьть and слышать have the following perfectives:

Imperfective.		Perfective.
ви́дѣть	to see	увидѣть
видать		увидать
слышать	to hear	услышать
слыхать		vслыха́ть

The presents of увидёть and услышать are very common, being the ordinary (perfective) futures of видёть and слышать, e.g.

я увижу его завтра = I shall see him to-morrow.

The presents of увидать and услыхать are never used. Their pasts on the other hand are quite common, and it is to be noticed that there is no essential difference in meaning between

## vвидаль and vвидъль

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> This verb is seldom used, the perfective future of нести́ (without idea of any particular direction) is понести́; from носи́ть (which usually, but not always, means to wear) the imperfective future is naturally бу́ду носи́ть, while I shall wear (= I shall put on) is нады́ну from нады́ть.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> сходить has a special meaning, viz. to go, with the implication of speedy return, e.g.

я схожу́ на почту = I shall just run round to the post (and shall be back soon).

There is also an imperfective verb сходить (perfective сойти) = to some or go off, e.g.

онь сходить сь ума = he is going off his head сходиться, сойтись = to foregather.

or between

услыхаль and услышаль.

Notice the compounds:

Imperfective,		Perfective.
завидовать	to envy	позави́довать
ненавидъть	to hate	возненавидьть
предвидѣть	to foresee	(only imperfective).

Two verbs deserve special mention, viz. of exats and exats; these form their compound perfectives from the actual imperfective, but the corresponding compound imperfective is formed not from the potential imperfective but from yet a third imperfective form of the word, only used in composition:

Parforting

Imperfective.		rerjective.
бъжать	to run	побъжать
бетать		побѣтать
перебѣга́ть	to run across	перебѣжа́ть
избъгать	to avoid	избъжать and
	0 0	физбъ̀гнуть
yóbrázb	to run away	убѣжа́ть
прибъгать	f to run to	прибъжать
ириовиль	to have recourse to	пьицътнатр
фхать з	to go (except on foot)	пофхать
балить		събздить <sup>2</sup>
прівзжать	to arrive	прівхать
увзжать	to depart	уйхать
•		

плыть and лёзть have the same peculiarity, forming their compound imperfectives not with the verbs плавать and лазить but with плывать and лазить; they are not given in full here, because they are of much less common occurrence.

½ ѣхать and ѣздить form parallels to идти and ходи́ть, e.g.

я вду въ Лондонъ = I am travelling to London

н наждый годь взжу въ Россію = I travel to Russia every year.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> събздить forms a parallel to сходить and means to take a journey and come back soon, e.g.

вчерымы събеднии къ внакомымъ = yesterday we drove to see some acquaintances (sc. we didn't stay long or we came home again the same day).

It has already been mentioned that the potential imperfectives are not often used to form the compound perfectives, but usually to form the compound imperfectives, e.g. перелетать, проводить, &c. But we have seen that they can be so used, e.g. сходать, събъдить. Besides these there are, however, numerous instances of the use of the potential imperfectives to form a compound perfective; in such cases the corresponding compound imperfective is formed not from the actual imperfective but by the already familiar process of the insertion of -ыв- or -пв-, or by some other alternative form. It is to be noticed that several potential imperfectives which are in themselves intransitive become transitive when they enter this category of compound perfectives. For the sake of lucidity the verbs are repeated in full:

Imperfective.		Perfective.
нести	to carry	понести
носить	to wear	поноси́ть
приносить	to bring (by hand)	принести
изнашивать	to wear out (materials, clothes)	износить
notice also		
выносить	to carry out, to endure	вынести
вынашивать	to wear out (clothes)	выносить
вести́ води́ть	to lead	повести
проводить	to spend (time)	провести
провожа́ть	to accompany (walking) to see off (at station)	проводить
пдти	to go (on foot)	пойти
ходить		сходить .
уходить	to go away	уйти́
уха́живать <sup>1</sup>		уходить <sup>2</sup>
<b> Б</b> хать	to go (except on foot)	поехать
<b>Б</b> ЗДИТЬ		събздить
разъвжаться	to depart in different directions to miss one another on the road	)
разъвзживать		

<sup>1 =</sup> to flirt with or to nurse; construction: sa + instrumental.
2 = to waste (money), to wear out (a horse).

and somewhat anomalously

Imperfective.

Rerfective.

нзъвзжать {to travel over all parts of, visit } нзъвздить ехhaustively }

Notice the causative verbs:

расти́ to grow (intrans.) вы́расти
выраща́ть to make grow вы́растить
and нои́ть = to water (animals)
from инть = to drink.

#### § 117.

#### Anomalous Verbs.

A few simple imperfective verbs have as compound perfectives corresponding to them in meaning verbs from other stems; these are:

Imp	erfective.			Perfective.
pres.	брать беру́ берёшь	to take	pres.	взять возьму́ возьмёшь
pres.	быю быю бьёшь	to hit	pres.	уда́рить уда́рю уда́ришь
pres.	класть кладу́ кладёшь	to put	pres.	положи́ть положу́ положишь
pres.	ловить ловлю́ ло́вишь	to catch	pres.	пойма́ть пойма́ю пойма́ешь
pres.	говори́ть говорю́ говори́шь	to say, tell	pres.	сказа́ть скажý ска́жешь

Several of these verbs have compound perfectives or imperfectives formed from the same stem as well as those given here, but it has so happened that e.g. the verb еказать has come to be the regular perfective corresponding in meaning to говорить; there is a perfective verb поговорить, but it means to have a little talk, while

сказа́ть and говора́ть both mean to say or tell (говора́ть can also mean to talk). It is thus possible to form fuller though incomplete series of these verbs, e. g.

```
Perfective.
         Imperfective.
брать
              = to take
              = to collect
                                      собрать
                                                 = to collect
собирать
взимать
                                     -ВЗЯТЬ
                                                 = to take
              = to levy money
                                      побить
                                                 = to hit a little
бить
             = to hit
                                      убить
                                                 = to kill
убивать
              = to kill
              = to hit
                                      ударить
                                                 = to hit
ударять
             = to put
пласть
             = to pack (trans.)
укладывать
                                      уложить
                                                 = to pack (trans.)
                       (intrans.)
                                                            (intrans.)
полагать
             = to suppose
                                      положить = to put
                                                   to suppose
  Notice the idioms:
              подага́ется? = is it included (in the price)?
              стинней
                        = let us suppose
ловить
             = to catch
налавливать = to catch a lot
                                      наловить = to catch a lot
                                     поймать.
                                                 = to catch
                                        Cf. the cognate verb
понимать
             = to understand
                                      понять
                                                 = to understand.
говори́ть
              = to say, tell, talk <-
                                      поговорить
                                                    = to talk a little
разгова́ривать = to converse
уговаривать
              = to try to persuade
                                      уговорить
                                                    = to persuade
отгова́ривать = to try to dissuade
                                      отговорить
                                                    = to dissuade
отказывать(ся) = to refuse
                                      отказать(ся)
                                                    = to refuse
vка́зывать
              = to point out
                                      указать
                                                    = to point out
оказываться
              = to turn out to be
                                      оказаться
                                                    = to turn out to be
              = to order
приказывать
                                      приказать
                                                    = to order
заказывать
                                      заказать
                                                    = to ,, register
наказывать
              = to punish
                                      наказать
                                                    = to punish
показывать
              = to prove
                                      локазать.
                                                    = to prove
показывать
              = to show
                                      показа́ть
                                                    = to show
разсказывать = to relate
                                      разсказать
                                                    = to relate
сказывать
                                     сказа́ть
                                                    = to tell, say
```

Imperfective.

Perfective.

[Сf. кáжется  $= \left\{ egin{array}{l} \emph{it seems}, \\ \emph{sc. I think} \end{array} \right.$ 

каза́лось = it seemed

показа́лось = it seemed]

Certain verbs are only perfective, e.g.

очута́ться = to find oneself suddenly anywhere очну́ться = to wake up anywhere

cocтoяться = to take place.

Others are only imperfective, e.g.

зави́сѣть = to depend зна́чить = to mean

недоумъвать = to be perplexed,

to hesitate нужнаться = to need

повиноваться = to submit to

подлежать = to be open to (e.g. doubt)

подражать = to imitate
покровительствовать = to protect
предстоять = to be imminent

предту́вствовать = to have a presentiment of

преслѣдовать = to persecute
принадлежать = to belong
содержать = to contain, maintain
солѣйствовать = to help, contri-

bute to (morally)
comanists = to regret
coctoáts = to consist
coγγ́вствовать = to sympathize

сто́нть = to cost

Others can be used as imperfectives or perfectives, having only the one form, e.g.

вельть = to order, command

жени́ться = to marry (of the man only)

ра́нить = to wound.

Some verbs, apparently perfective, are derived from compound nouns, e.g.

Imperfective.

Perfective.

pasymbeten it is understood

(разунь)

заботиться to trouble about anything

позаботиться

(забота)

наследовать to inherit

унаследовать

(наследникъ)

# PREPOSITIONS IN COMPOSITION WITH VERBS, NOUNS, ETC.

§ 118. The following is not intended to be a complete list of all the various meanings acquired or lent by prepositions in composition; such a list to be exhaustive would require a whole book to itself.

Here only some of the most important varieties of meaning are given as a help to the beginner, who is often puzzled by the apparently numberless compound words. It is important to remember that most of the prepositions can be used merely to make a perfective out of an imperfective verb. Also that in many cases besides this the original meaning of the preposition is barely apparent. In beginning to read Russian it is always helpful to cut off the preposition or prepositions of any unfamiliar compound word, when the root (and the meaning) will often become clear.

There are five prepositions which are only used in composition, viz. BO3-, BLI-, HU3-, HE90- (HPE-), and PA3-.

### B03- (B3-)

The meaning is originally *up*, e.g. воздвига́ть ipfv. = to erect

but this often lapses, e.g.

возража́ть ipfv. = to reply возраза́ть pfv. = ,,

sometimes it merely forms the perfective:

возненави́дѣть pfv. = to conceive hatred for возмо́жно = it is possible.

When the word with which it is compounded begins with a vowel it sometimes, though by no means always, contracts to B3-, e.g.

взойти pfv. = to rise (of the sun, &c.) взять pfv. = to take

but pres. возьм $\circ = I$  shall take

взморье = deep water (at sea, as opposed to the shallow water of an estuary).

If the word with which it is compounded begins with  $\kappa$ ,  $\kappa$ ,  $\pi$ ,  $\tau$ , it becomes BOC-, e.g.

восхо́дъ со́днца = sunrise
восто́къ = the East
Воскресе́ніе = Sunday (Resurrection)
воспреца́ть ipfv.
воспрети́ть pfv.

it sometimes appears as BC- before words beginning with these same consonants:

всходить ipfv.  $= to \ rise$  всиричать pfv.  $= to \ scream$ .

Care must be taken not to mistake Bo3- for BB in composition with words beginning with 3, c.

#### вы-

usually = out, e.g.

выходить ipfv. = to go out (on foot)
выйти pfv. = ,, ,,
выходь = exit
выставка = exhibition

it sometimes means thoroughly

выськать высьчь = to thrash thoroughly выздоровьть pfv. = to get thoroughly well

sometimes merely to form the perfective

вышить pfv. = to drink (sc. to drink to the end) in composition with нести and носить cf. § 116.

A peculiarity of this preposition in composition with verbs is that when it makes the verb compounded with it perfective it attracts and holds the accent throughout, while if the compound verb is imperfective the accent remains on the stem of the verb, e.g.

· g.

выражать ipfv.

выразять pfv.

выразять pfv.

Imperfective.Perfective.выбажатьto drive outвыбахатьвыбаживатьto break in horsesвыбадить

Cf. also in composition with necrú and носить § 116.

#### HHR.

= down

низвергать ipfv. } = to cast down, to abase.

#### nepe-

generally = over, across, afresh

переходить ipfv. перейти́ pfv. } = to cross on foot

перевзжать ipfv.) = to cross (by boat or rail)

перебхать pfv. \ to move (into a new house)

перемъ́на = change (e.g. in the weather)

переписка = correspondence

перево́зъ = ferry

перево́дъ = translation

переваль = watershed

It can imply excess:

пересодить = to over-salt.

Another form of this preposition is

#### npe-

which is also used to express the ideas round, over, or across.

претворять ipfv. претворять pfv. = to transform, convert

предавать ipfv. предать pfv. } = to hand over to, to betray

преданный = devoted

преступление = transgression, crime

препятствіе = obstacle

предъль = boundary, region

превышать ipfv. = to surpass (trans.)

презпрать ipfv. = to despise

прерывать ipfv. } = to interrupt

преимущество = advantage

Notice непременно = without fail.

In composition with other prepositions:

превосходи́ть ipfv. } = to excel превосходи́тельство = Excellency превосходи́тельство = Excellent! преподава́ть ipfv. } = to teach, lecture on. преподать pfv. }

In composition with adjectives it lends superlative meaning, e.g.

прекра́сный = very beautiful, splendid

(the original meaning of кра́сный was bright) cf. § 59.

#### pas-

usually = asunder, dis-, di-

разво́дь = divorce
размѣня́ть pfv. = to change (money)
размѣръ = dimension
раздѣлі́ть ipfv. } = to divide, distribute
разбивать ipfv. } = to break (e.g. glass or china).

It can also as it were amplify any activity, e.g.

разгова́ривать ipfv. = to converse разгово́рь = conversation разска́зывать ipfv. } = to narrate разска́за́ть = a tale развра́ть = depravity разводи́ть ipfv. = to breed.

It often corresponds to our un-:

раздѣва́ться ipfv. раздѣться pfv. развѣться pfv. развъ́тіе = development (lit. unwinding) разва́тины = ruins разстра́мвать ipfv. разстро́ить pfv. } = to unsettle, upset (morally). It sometimes means quite, e.g.

я не разслышать = I didn't quite hear.

Notice the following:

ymb = mind

разумъ = intellect

ýмный = clever

разумный = sensible (with common sense)

разсчёть = calculation

разсѣянный = absent-minded.

The z is retained before palatal vowels, e.g.

passéxateca pfv. = to break up (of a party).

When и follows it becomes ы, e.g.

разыскать from разъ + искать.

Before к, х, п, т, ц, ч, ш, щ раз- becomes pacрасходы = expenses.

Occasionally, usually when the accent falls on it, pas-becomes

роз-, е. g. розлиль, розлила = to pour out (tea), to spill

alternative past of раздить pfv., the other being раздиль, &c.

росписание повздовъ = time-table of trains (on the wall).

In composition with other prepositions:

распрода́жа = sale (in shops)

расположение = disposition, temperament

распоряжение = disposition (control), arrangement распространение = propagation.

The other prepositions used in composition are:

#### безъ

= (without), dis-, un- (this never changes to bec-)

безпоко́нть ipfv. = to disturb

обезпоко́ить pfv.

безусловно = unconditionally, absolutely

безкорыстный = disinterested

безпокойный = anxious

безобразный = horrible, disgraceful (lit. having no pattern. sc. unlike anything).

When n follows it becomes m:

безымённый = nameless (безь + iмя).

 $\mathbf{B}\mathbf{b}$  (Bo) = in, into

входить (въ) ipfv. войти́ (въ) pfv. входъ = entrance

вводить ipfv. } = to introduce (e. g. a custom) внобиться (въ) pfv. = to fall in love with включительно = inclusively.

Notice

встава́ть ipfv. } = to get up (from bed) внима́ніе = attention.

The  $\pi$  is retained before soft vowels, e. g. By Exate pfv. = to ride or drive into.

Ao = up to, to the end, pre-

доходи́ть (до) ipfv. дойти́ (до) pfv. } = to reach (on foot) дойхать (до) pfv. = to reach (except on foot) дохо́дь = income догово́рь = treaty доказа́тельство = proof доното́нный = antediluvian докла́дь = lecture (on anything) доста́ть = to obtain.

За
= behind
заходъ солнца = sunset
занать

It has many uses not obviously though indirectly connected with this meaning:

> заходить кь ipfv.} = to call on, look in on pfv.

ваде́ржка = delay

валожить = to mortgage

закла́дь = pledge, wager

зака́зъ = order (for anything, e.g. goods)

заказное письмо = registered letter

ваплатить pfv. = to pay

(платить ipfv.)

заставля́ть ipfv. sactabnets pfv. = to compel

 $\frac{\text{заставать ipfv.}}{\text{застать}}$  = to find (any one, e. g. at home)

sa often gives the meaning: to start doing anything, e.g.

засмъяться = to break into laughter

which is the perfective of

емъ́яться = to laugh запьть pfv. = to burst into song

заговорить pfv. = to start talking.

With a reflexive verb it can mean to forget oneself, be lost in doing anything:

зачитаться pfv. = to read till you lose sense of time and place.

изъ (изо)

= out

издава́ть ipfv. } = to edit, publish изнать pfv. издание = edition, publication

изложение = exposition.

The b is retained before soft vowels, e.g.

изъяснение = explanation.

When m follows it becomes m, e.g.

изысканный = exquisite, far-fetched.

Before k, x, n, T, 4, n it becomes mc-:

псходъ = issue (out of a difficulty)
псполнять ipfv.
псполнять pfv.

исключено = exception
псключено = exclusively.

#### между

= inter- (but never with verbs)
междунаро́дный = international.

#### Ha

= on to

находить ipfv. найти́ pfv. надежда = hope (something put on) надежться = to hope.

Notice

насл'ядникь = heir
насморкь = cold (in the head)
наўка = science
народь = people, nation
наложеннымь платежёмь = pay on delivery
настоящій = present, actual, real
наступающій = coming, imminent
нам'вреніе = intention.

Often with the meaning of to do anything to the full, or largely найсться pfv. = to eat one's fill накупить pfv. = to buy a quantity of наслаждаться ipfv. = to enjoy oneself начитанный = well-read.

Preceded by a negative it expresses the idea not to be able to have enough of

ненагия́дный = that one cannot feast one's eyes on long enough иннасытный = insatiable.

надъ

= over

на́диись = inscription принадлежать ipfv. = to belong.

0 (06- 060)

= about

обходить ipfv. = to go round

необходимый = essential

обдумывать ipfv. = to think over

оши́бка = mistake (= missing the mark).

This meaning is often not apparent:

обижать ipfv. } = to offend (lit. look round)

опечатка = misprint

огово́рка = reserve, limitation

объть = dinner

огоро́дъ = kitchen-garden.

The z is retained before a palatal vowel, e.g.

объясне́ніе = explanation.

When n follows it becomes m, e.g.

обыскъ = inquiry, search.

отъ (ото)

= away from

отходить (оть) ipfv. отойти (оть) pfv. = to go away from

о́ттепель = a thaw

отлично! = excellent!

отрызать = to cut off

sometimes ото- as in отослать = to send away.

The b is retained before soft vowels, e.g. others = departure.

When u follows it becomes u, e.g.

отыскать = to find by dint of searching.

#### по

The commonest use is to make imperfective verbs perfective; in doing so it usually connotes that the action will be of less duration or of less importance than that expressed by the simple imperfective verb, e.g.

потовори́ть = to talk a little потанцова́ть = to dance a little посмъ́аться = to laugh a little.

But in a large number of cases it has lost all trace of its original meaning, e. g.

посылать ipfv. = to send послать pfv. = to receive получить pfv. = to receive посыщать ipfv. = to visit.

Notice the following very common words, all compounded with no:

похо́дъ = campaign
похо́нъ (па) = like (adj.)
по́хороны = funeral

посте́ль = bed (specifically bedding)

посту́покъ = act, behaviour

посу́да = crockery поте́ря = lcss

поде́ржанный = second-hand

послъ = after послъяній = last

последствіе = consequence

послъдовать (за) pfv. = to follow after +

and hundreds of others.

Cf.  $exf_{younin} = next$ 

велъ́дствіе + acc. = as a result of слъ́довать (за) ipfv. = to follow after

следить (за) ipfv. = to follow.

подъ (подо-) = under

подходить (къ) ipfv. подойти (къ) pfv. подойти (къ) pfv. подойти (къ)

ог поднимать нодымать нодымать рfv. рfv. 1 ipfv. нодымать рfv. 1 ipfv. нодымать рfv. 1 ipfv. нодымать рfv. 1 ipfv. 

подді́яльный = counterfeit
подході́яцій = suitable
подде́ржка = support
поджига́тельство = incendiarism
подозрі́ява́ть ipfv. = to suspect
подозрі́ятьный = suspicious.

The в is retained before soft vowels, e.g. подъёздь = porch, entrance,

When и follows it becomes ы, e.g. подыскать = to match (e.g. colours), assort.

(передъ) пред-

= fore (fore-), pre-

предсказывать ipfv. предсказать pfv. предварительный = preliminary предвочитать ipfv. предпочесть pfv. предложение = offer, suggestion.

Notice:

предпринимать ipfv. предпринять pfv. предпринять pfv. предприять undertaking.

The ъ is retained before soft vowels, e.g. предъявление = presentation (of a claim).

When a follows it may be written ы, e.g. предыдущій = preceding.

#### при

in composition often expresses the idea of motion towards or of the application of one thing to another:

приходи́ть ipfv. 
$$pfv.$$
  $pfv.$   $pfv.$ 

принимать ipfv.   
принить pfv. 
$$= \begin{cases} to \ accept \ (invitations), to \ receive \ (guests), to \ take \ (medicines) \end{cases}$$

причина = reason.

#### npo

## = through, past

#### Notice:

проиграть = to lose (a game), to lose money at play.

# (противъ)

= anti-

противодъйствовать = to counteract противоръчие = contradiction, inconsistency.

$$\mathbf{c}\mathbf{b}$$
 (co) = (1) with (2) from

- сравнение = comparison
   схо́дство = resemblance
   состо́ять (нзъ, въ) ipfv. = to consist (of)
   соглаща́ться (съ) ipfv.
   согласи́ться (съ) pfv.
- (2) снимать ipfv. снить pfv. ссылка = exile,

Sometimes the meaning is not apparent:

считать ipfv. } = to count, consider счесть pfv. } = to count, consider счесть = bill, account Hackets = to the account of, as regards, on account of codops = cathedral сомнъваться ipfv. = to doubt събсть pfv. = to eat.

The ъ is retained before soft vowels, e.g. съйздъ = meeting, assembly.

When п follows it becomes ы, е. g.

сыщикь = spy.

= away

γχομάτι ipfv. } = to go away (on foot)

γὕεκάτι ipfv. } = to depart (e. g. by rail)

γύματι ipfv. } = to clear away

γύματι ipfv. } = to clear away

# 244 PREPOSITIONS IN COMPOSITION WITH VERBS, ETC.

But this primary meaning is often lost:

ycтава́ть ipfv.} = to grow tired устать pfv. ухо́дь = looking after, care for увздъ = district уборная (sc. комната) = lavatoru ука́зывать (на) ipfv.} = to point to указать (на) vкáзъ = decree vниже́ніе = humiliationумирать ipfv. \ = to die умере́ть pfv. ) удобно = convenient, comfortable уго́дно = agreeable какъ вамъ уго́дно = just as you like. ybóriň = poor, lowly удовлетворять ipfv.) = to satisfy удовлетворить pfv.) used reflexively = to be satisfied удово́льствіе = pleasure укладывать ipfv.) = to pack (trans.) уложи́ть used reflexively = to pack (intrans.) употреблять ipfv. \ = to use (cf. p. 220) употребить pfv.) used reflexively = to be in useугова́ривать = to try to persuade уговорить = to succeed in persuading угово́ръ = agreement, stipulation увидеть видеть увидать видать } = perfectives of √ vзнать знать услышать слышать услыхать слыхать

INTERJECTIONS § 119. a! ба! ахъ! охъ! = ah! oh! (surprise); ой! = oh! (fright). an! an! = hi! hullo! (attracting attention or expressing delight) ará! oró! əré! = aha! (triumph); r in these words sounds like h. тфу! тьфу! (imitative of the action of spitting) = ugh! pooh! (disgust): чорть возьми! = devil take it! damn! батюшки (little fathers)! матушки (little mothers)! express horror and amazement. на! = here you are, take this! воть! = voici! or voilá (cf. p. 116). Hy<sup>1</sup>! Hy-ka! = well! BOH's! = (1) there it is over yonder! (2) away! -ка! (e.g. дай-ка сюда́ = come, give it here; 'ну, прочти-ка, воть' = 'come along here and just read this through') -To! (cf. pp. 63, 111) -те! (cf. р. 170) увы́! = alas! ура́! = hurrah!чу! шть! тсь! = hush! шабашъ! = stop! easy! steady! ей-Бо́гу! ей-ей! = by God! sc. in very truth (asseveration). че́стное сло́во! = (my) word of honour! Господи! Воже мой! = (Good) Lord! My God! (both used as frequently as Mon Dieu in French) да здравствуеть . .! = long live . .! vive . . .! .. долой! = down with . .! прочь! = away! avaunt! воть-те-разъ! = there's a nice thing! there's a fine set-out! BOTH - TAKE - ! = that's what I call a fine . .! воть собака, такъ собака! = some dog, what! представь(те)! скажи́(те)! = just think! fancy that! (cf. p. 251). неуже́ли! неужто́! нешто́! páзвѣ! = is it possible! ещё-бы! = I should say so! not half! какъ бы не такъ ! = I don't think!здравствуйте (imperative of здравствовать, pronounce zdrastye, lit. be well), какъ вы поживаете? = how do you do, how are you? доброе утро (seldom used)! здорово! = good morning! (cf. p. 250). покойной (or спокойной) ночи (genitive after желаю вамъ understood, cf. p. 121)! = good-night! до-свиданія! = au revoir! (lit. till seeing again)

прощайте! = good-bye! but, N.B., простите! = forgive! excuse me!

1 и пу + imperfective infinitive = and (he) began to...

There are many interjections abbreviated from and often used instead of verbs, e.g.: бацъ! хлопъ! = bang! бухъ! = flop!шмыть! = off he dashed! Cf. also idioms on pp. 66, 76, 108, 111. 112, 115-118, 120, 122, 128, 170, 192-198, 208, 251.

#### RELATIONSHIPS

₹ 120.

 $\mathbf{n}$ ра́д $\mathbf{b}$ д $\mathbf{b} = great$ -grandfather пъдъ (дъдушка) = grandfather дя́дя (дя́дюшка) = uncle отець (батюшка, тятя, &с.) = father (cf. p. 46) pодители = parentsсынь (сыныхь) = son (cf. p. 48) брать (братець) = brother (cf. р. 49 - 5148) племинициа = піесе илемя́нникъ = перћего внукъ (внучекъ) = grandsonдвоюродный брать от кузень = cousin (masc.) Bath 1 = son-in-law or brotherin-law (sister's husband) щуринъ 1 = brother-in-law (sister's

певерь 1 = brother-in-law (husband's or wife's brother) своякь 1 = wife's sister's husband

husband)

евёкоръ  $^{1} = father - in \cdot law$  (husband's father) Tects = father-in-law (wife's father)

прабабущка =  $great \cdot grand mother$ бабушка = grandmother тётя (тётушка) = aunt . мать (матушка, мама, &с.) = mother (cf. p. 54)

πbти = children (cf. p. 55)

дочь (дочка) = daughter (cf. p. 54) cecrpá (cecrpáца) = s'ster (cf. pp.

внучка = granddaughterдвоюродная сестра от кузина = cousin (fem.) невъстка 1 = daughter in-law or

sister-in-law (brother's wife)  $c \text{mox} \acute{a}^1 = daughter-in-law.$ 

золо́вка = sister - in - law (husband's sister) свойченица1 = sister-in-law (wife's

sister) свекровь 1 = mother-in-law (husband's mother)

тёща 1 = mother-in-law (wife's mother)

<sup>1</sup> Russians themselves get mixed up in the correct use of these quaint terms and frequently say beau-fils, beau-frère, belle-fille, bellesæur, beau-père, belle-mère instead, only discriminating generation and sex.

(в) отчимъ = step-father

пасынокъ = step-son

свать = match-maker (masc.)

женихъ = bridegroom

мужъ = husband (cf. pp. 48, 144)

кумъ = gossip (co-god-parent, masc.)

качеха = step-mother

падчерица = step-daughter

сваха = match-maker (fem.)

невъста = bride

жена́ = wife (cf. pp. 133, 135)

кумъ = gossip (co-god-parent, fem.)

#### MEASURES AND WEIGHTS

#### § 121.

#### Money

100 копе́екъ (ог копе́екъ) = 1 рубль (about 2s. in normal times) (cf. pp. 103, 104).

#### DISTANCE

1 верста́ ( $\frac{2}{3}$  of a mile) = 500 саже́нямъ (dative, cf. p. 130)
1 са́жень (7 feet, a fathom) = 7 фу́тамъ (футь = foot)
,, ,, = 3 арши́намъ
1 арши́нтъ ( $2\frac{1}{3}$  feet) = 16 вершка́мъ
,, , = 28 дю́ймамъ
1 вершо́кть =  $1\frac{3}{4}$  inches, 1 дю́ймъ = 1 inch.

#### SPACE

1 десяти́на =  $2\frac{7}{10}$  acres; the other measures preceded by the adjective квадра́тный = .... square.

## WEIGHT

 1 берковець (360% lb.)
 = 10 пуда́мъ

 1 пудь (36 % lb.)
 = 40 фунта́мъ

 1 фунть (% lb. avoirdupois)
 = 32 ло́тамъ

 1 лоть (45 ог.)
 = 3 золотника́мъ

 1 золотни́кь (65.8 grains)
 = 96 до́лямъ

1 до́ля = '68 grain.

#### RUSSIAN ABBREVIATIONS

#### § 122.

до Р. Х. (до Рождества́ Христо́ва) = B. C.

по Р. Х. (по Рождествъ Христовомъ) = A. D.

н. с. (новаго стиля) = new style)

e. c. (cráparo crúля) = old style cf. p. 132

и. м. (прошлаго мъ́сяца) = ult.

c. м. (сего́ мѣсяца) = inst.

б. м. (бу́дущаго мъ́сяца) = prox.

r. от r-нъ (господинъ) = Mr.

гжа. (госпожа́) = Mrs. or Miss

гг. (господа́) = Messrs. or Mr. and Mrs.

и др. (другі́е от другія)

n np. (npóree or rie or ris) = and others, &c.

н т. д. (такъ да́дъ́е) = and so forth, and so on, cf. pp. 131, 250.

и т. п. (тому подобное)

т. е. (то-есть) = that is, i.e.

напр., нпр. (на-примъръ) = for example, e.g.

м. б. (можеть быть) = maybe, perhaps

п. т. ч. (потому́-что) = because

т. к. (такъ-какъ) = since, inasmuch as

т. н. (такъ называ́емый) = so-called, aforesaid

BM. (BMECTO) = instead of

cм. (смотри́) = see, v.

 $\mathrm{cp.}$  (сравни́) =  $\mathrm{compare}$ ,  $\mathrm{cf.}$ 

стр. (страница) = раде

гл. (глава́) = chapter

ж. д. (жельзная дорога) = railway

ст. (станція) = station

губ. (губе́рнія) = government, province

c. (село́) = village

г. (го́родь) = town

р. (рѣка́) = river

к., коп. (копейка) = kopele

р., руб. (рубль) = rouble

#### ADDENDA

§ 44, p. 56.

There are a few indeclinable neuter nouns, such as пальто́ (paletot) = overcoat, moccé (chaussée) = high-road, all ending in vowels; also surnames in -o, such as Шевченко (those in -ко are of Little Russian origin) and such names as Дурново́, Жива́го, and Мертва́го (pronounced -ágo, cf. p. 32); surnames in -ичь, e.g. Жи́вковичь, have no feminine forms.

§ 48, p. 64, Obs. 11.

The expression He to is used in the following idioms:

я не то́ хотѣ́ль сказа́ть = I didn't mean that не то́, что́бы + conditional, or + adjective = not exactly. не то́..., не то́... = not exactly..., not exactly... это уже́ не то́ = it is no longer the same thing.

He Tó, or a Tó, used by itself at the beginning of a sentence = or else.

§ 53, p. 74, Obs. 7.

The difference between какой and каковъ is this: какой = of what kind, which sort, e. g. это какое вино? = what kind of wine is that? каковъ = of what quality, how do you like, e. g. каково вино? = how do you like this wine? The pronoun таковъ is used commonly in the following idiom и быль таковъ! = and off he went (disappeared)! The full forms каковой and таковой are seldom used, their meaning is much the same as какой and такой, but they are used rather as pure pronouns, referring to a noun in a previous sentence, and not as adjectives. Такой-то = such and such, cf. р. 144. Какой-нибудь and какой-то correspond in meaning to кто-нибудь, кто-то, какъ-нибудь, какъ-то, е. g. какой-нибудь городъ = any town (you like to mention), въ какомъ-то царствъ = in a certain kingdom (opening of fairy-tale).

§ 55, p. 80.

The instrumental singular of names of places in -въ and -во is, not -вымъ, but -вомъ, e. g. за Кієвомъ = beyond Kiev, подъ Кієвомъ = near (lit. under) Kiev, nom. sing. Кієвъ.

The locative singular of names in -овь, -ово, -евь, -ево, -ынь, -ыно, -инь, -ино, when they are surnames or place-names is, not -омь, but -в, as in the case of nouns, e.g. о Ле́рмонтовь, Пушкинь и Турге́невь = about Lérmontov, Páshkin, and Turgénev, въ Кі́евь и въ Цари́цынь = in Kíev and Tsarítsyn.

§ 71, p. 107.

Notice the common idiom:

никуда́ не годится = it is no good at all (cf. p. 159).

§ 72, p. 109.

Notice:

нынь nowadays, also = пока (cf. p. 118) can be and is often used adverbially = for (adj. ныньшній = of nowadays).

§ 73, p. 111.

Notice:

да́ромъ = free, gratis

въро́ятно = probably

вмѣстѣ = together

точь-въ-то́чь = exactly like, just as if

tous-въ-то́чь = exactly like, just as if (lit. dot-to-dot).

TAKE-TO TAKE! = that may be, that's all very well!

такъ п (+verb) = 'simply', 'just as if', e. g. глаза́ у него́ такъ и гора́ть = his eyes are simply burning.

такъ, followed by a verb, may also mean: (1) unintentionally, (2) gratis, for nothing.

§ 74, p. 114.

Notice: отчáсти = partly итогó : = total:

(This curious word is really  $n+\text{ror\acute{o}}$ , gen. sing. of ro, = and of that; it is put at the foot of a bill, summing up the items, and from it has been formed a noun ntórb = a total, normerá utórb cuerý = to reckon up the total of, lit. to, a bill.)

Forcible colloquial equivalents of очень are: здо́рово (not to be confused with здоро́во, p. 245), and бо́льно = properly, extremely, not half; не бо́льно = not particularly.

Other common comparative adverbs are:

далье = further (п такъ далье, п т. д. = and so forth)

до́лье = longer

ра́нье = earlier (cf. зара́нье = beforehand, betimes).

§ 78, p. 118.

A subordinate clause in Russian is often preceded by a correlative pronoun in the principal sentence, which is not needed in English, and is puzzling at first sight, e.g.: дёло вь томь, что я но могу́ прійти́ = the point is that I can't come, analogously: для того́, что́бы—за тёмь, что́бы—сь тёмь, что́бы = in order that, ме́жду тёмь, какь = while, по́сле того́, какь = after, пе́редь тёмь, какь (but пре́жде, чёмь) = before, до тёхь порь,¹ пока́ не = until, сь тёхь порь, какь = since. According to Russian orthography a comma should always precede the conjunction, even in the phrase по тому́, что = because, though this rule is not always observed. When что beginning a clause = what (and not that) it is often accented что̀, as on p. 187.

§ 106, p. 193.

Notice the following idiomatic uses of the imperative:

пожалуй (from пожаловать)! = by all means, I expect, I dare say, I shouldn't wonder (used as an interjection in conversation).

(N.B.—пожа́луйте = be so good, used more by shop-attendants and servants.)

поми́лунте (from поми́ловать) = goodness gracious, I say, look here, no really (used as a remonstrance in conversation).

скажи́те (often followed by пожа́луйста)! = you don't mean to say so!

разсказывай!  $= go \ on !$ 

сдылайте одолжение! = by all means, with pleasure, certainly (lit make the loan, said when acceding to a request or granting a favour).

пзвините! = excuse me! I beg your pardon!

<sup>1</sup> The words 'до тахъ поръ' are often omitted in this phrase, not heing essential to its meaning.

§ 109, p. 202.

Notice:

закрыто = it is shutоткрыто = it is open свободно = it is free запрещено = it is forbidden.

§ 112, p. 208.

Notice that состоять is also used with the meaning 'to be', e.g.: я состою предсъдателемь (inst., cf. p. 141) этого общества = I am the president of this society.

How to express one.

This is most frequently expressed by the 2nd person singular, e.g. httperó he noment = one can't understand a word (for this use of the perfective future cf. p. 188). After kormá and écom in such expressions either the present or the future may be used, e.g.

когда́ поду́маешь . . . = when one thinks . . . éсли на это смо́тришь = if one looks at this.

The perfective future is frequently used after whenever, if ever. One can also be rendered by the infinitive, e.g.

мно́го жела́ть, добра́ не вида́ть = if one wishes (too) much, one sees no good (proverb), волко́вь боа́ться, вь ль́сь не ходи́ть = if one fears wolves, one mustn't go to the forest (proverb).

 $\acute{\text{ссли}}$  сказать всю истину = if one were to say the whole truth.

The reflexive verb, the 3rd person plural of the present tense and the passive participles are also used to express one, cf. p. 110.

§ 117, p. 230.

Notice that He BENÉTE = to forbid, e.g.:

Both лениться не велить = God forbids (us) to be idle. донгорь мне не велить вставать = the doctor forbude me to get up.

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